


THE CONDUCT OF
PHYSICAL ACTIVITIES

WILBUR P. BOWEN





Digitized by the Internet Archive
in 2022 with funding from
Kahle/Austin Foundation

THE CONDUCT OF PHYSICAL ACTIVITIES

In Elementary and High Schools

By

WILBUR P. BOWEN, M.S.

PROFESSOR OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION, MICHIGAN STATE NORMAL COLLEGE

*Author of "Applied Anatomy and Kinesiology." Co-Author with
Elmer D. Mitchell of "The Theory and Practice
of Organized Play"*

ILLUSTRATED

Withdrawn from
Wisconsin Library
Upon Collection 54771
Room Wisconsin 54771

NEW YORK

A. S. BARNES AND COMPANY

1927

51543

COPYRIGHT, 1927, BY
A. S. BARNES AND COMPANY

PRINTED IN THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

PREFACE

As its name implies, this is a course in the technique of handling classes in physical activity. Experience shows that students preparing to teach physical education need training in this technique just as they need training in the technique of baseball, basket ball and dancing. With this in view, the course includes an extensive list of definite projects to be actually worked out and performed by the student. This has proved, in the courses for physical education specials in the Michigan State Normal College, to be a very essential part of the training of teachers. It is one thing to read the description of how commands should be given and be ready to recite it in class, but it is another thing to show by actual demonstration exactly how it should be done. The book is not designed to be a supply of material, but rather a book on the technique of using material. Problems in the choice and arrangement of activities for a class period, and in the planning of the activities of each grade for the school year, are naturally included.

Acknowledgment should be made of the help of the entire teaching staff of the physical education department at Ypsilanti in preparing the course, and especially of the work done by Miss Ruth Robinson, who provided the chapter on Teaching Rhythmic Activities; certain features of the chapters on Organization have been drawn from Elmer D. Mitchell's book on Intramural Athletics.

Ypsilanti, January, 1927.

WILBUR P. BOWEN.

THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO
LIBRARY
3100 EAST 57TH STREET
CHICAGO, ILL. 60637

CONTENTS

CHAPTER	PAGE
I. THE PURPOSES TO BE ACCOMPLISHED	I
II. STIMULATING INTEREST	13
III. RELATIVE VALUES	27
IV. TEACHING GYMNASTIC MOVEMENTS	37
V. CONDUCTING IMITATIVE AND DRAMATIC ACTIVITIES	53
VI. CONDUCTING RHYTHMIC ACTIVITIES	59
VII. THE SQUAD AND LEADER SYSTEM	82
VIII. ORGANIZING AND CONDUCTING CONTESTS AND MEETS	89
IX. TOURNAMENTS, ROUND ROBINS, AND ALL-YEAR SCORING SYSTEMS	104
X. PLANNING THE YEAR'S PROGRAM FOR EACH GRADE	120
APPENDIX	133

THE CONDUCT OF PHYSICAL ACTIVITIES

CHAPTER I

THE PURPOSES TO BE ACCOMPLISHED

From the day Adam and Eve left the Garden of Eden down to a time that is within the memory of people now living, man earned his bread by the sweat of his brow. Except for the few who owned beasts of burden, his single source of energy was his muscles. He knew five methods of locomotion: walking, running, jumping, swimming and climbing. He had five ways of handling objects: lifting, pushing, pulling, throwing and striking. To protect himself and gain subsistence he was driven to strenuous and almost ceaseless activity.

The physical struggle for existence was a long one. Ancient Hebrew writers estimated it at 200 generations; modern students estimate it at 20,000 generations. Whatever the exact figure may be, it was long enough to fix in the human constitution several features that are now inherited by each succeeding generation: muscles that make up 40 per cent of the body; an erect posture; a nervous system in which the ten fundamental movements just mentioned are natural coördinations; heart, lungs and digestive system suited to an output of 3,000 to 6,000 calories of energy per day; habits of eating, sleeping, and activity in harmony with the age-long program.

Then almost over night something happened that disrupted this program of muscular exertion completely and for all time. Machines of new design were put on the market—engines that fed on water, coal, and petroleum—and the human body, which had held a monopoly of mechanical power since time began, awoke one morning to find its occupation gone. With machinery now in

operation turning out a hundred times as much power as the total man-power of the world could provide, there is very little chance for muscle to regain its lost position. As a source of energy it is obsolete—sent to the junk heap along with the tallow candle and the spinning wheel. In a few years the coolie will be as extinct as the dodo.

The industrial revolution has caused an enormous increase in the numbers attending school, a big increase in the leisure time of people in school and out, and a complete cessation of the vigorous activity that earlier life enforced. These changes must be met by an extensive readjustment of our system of education, if the race is to survive and cope successfully with the changed conditions.

Increased school and college attendance has necessitated great building programs that have alarmed conservative tax-payers. The building program is of interest in this discussion because it has resulted in neglect of the problems of leisure time and physical education. The problems of increased attendance are simpler and more plainly seen and were taken up first for that reason. The church, the Y. M. C. A., and the play movement have been trying to solve the leisure-time problem. So little was done for physical education down to war time that one-third of all drafted men had to be rejected as too unfit to be worth training. This startled the more intelligent classes of people, and as a result many states have now passed laws requiring physical training in the schools.

It is becoming more and more evident year by year that the school must have a large part in solving the problems regarding the use of leisure time. Voluntary agencies of charitable nature, like the church, the Y. M. C. A., and the playground associations, can at best occupy only one or two corners of the field. Park boards and other municipal agencies are too much in politics and lack the educational viewpoint. Commercial amusements are too closely related to commercialized vice, which has ruined more races and nations than war, pestilence, and famine. The school needs the space and equipment for recreative activities, and is better able, when equipped, to conduct them than any other agency.

It is becoming more and more evident that these two educational problems—how to provide wholesome activity for leisure time and how to promote the health and vigor of the people—are essentially one and the same problem; the right solution of the one

is the best solution of the other. The most attractive amusements in childhood and youth are active games and plays involving the fundamental bodily movements inherited from primitive life: running, jumping, swimming, throwing, and striking. They are the most enjoyable because they are the things which, from immemorial practice, man is better able to do than anything else; at the same time they are the best to develop vigor and health, for they use so much energy that they determine the amount of food needed and of waste to be eliminated, and therefore control indirectly the activity and development of heart, lungs, breathing muscles, and all the organs on which health and vigor depend.

The Instinct to be Active. Up to the time a child is sent to school he will, if given a chance, get as much physical activity as he needs. This is because of his natural and irrepressible instinct to be active. It is found by experiment that six-year-old boys, when not repressed, actually travel ten miles a day in their play, in addition to all the other movements they make during the same time. This shows in a rough but practical way how much muscular activity it takes to keep the vital organs in best condition; when sickness or injury keeps a child still, we see how growth and development are retarded.

In contrast with children, most adults in civilized communities have little inclination to bodily activity; they choose occupations calling for no physical exertion, and prefer for amusement such sensory pleasures as are afforded by movies and auto riding, where luxurious ease can be enjoyed. They will do anything to maintain their health except regular bodily exertion. As a consequence, while the growing interest in health has lowered the death rate among children to a fraction of what it was a few generations ago, mortality among adults is about as high as ever, with some diseases on the increase. One of the greatest problems of physical education, and probably its greatest one, is to find ways of inducing people to engage in more physical activity. As Woods Hutchinson says, "The greatest single danger in exercise is not getting enough of it."

Why We Avoid Physical Activity. Until recent times all the work of the world had to be done by muscles. Strenuous exertion was necessary to existence. The more powerful and prosperous people learned to avoid labor by employing animals, slaves and

4 THE CONDUCT OF PHYSICAL ACTIVITIES

servants to do it. This led to a universal feeling that physical exertion is menial and debasing. Those who have occupations involving little or no bodily effort wear better clothes and work shorter hours than those who perform heavy manual labor, which again lessens the popularity of vigorous activity.

A second cause for the popularity of a physically quiet life is the modern school, now compulsory for every one. Here the child, withdrawn from active life, is held for five or six hours a day to the task of learning to keep still and of acquiring skill of a higher order in such quiet occupations as reading, writing and spelling. Although schools are rapidly improving in this respect, it is still true that nowhere else in society, either in home, factory, store, street, hotel, steamship, or car is it found necessary to suppress bodily activity so completely as in the school. The natural activity of big muscles upon which health and vigor so much depend cannot be suppressed to this extent without much loss of physical ability and loss of the natural enjoyment of physical activity.

The Purposes to be Accomplished. With this situation in view, the fundamental purposes for which physical activities are conducted in schools and colleges are:

- (1) Knowledge and skill in activities,
- (2) Physical development,
- (3) Wholesome recreation,
- (4) Social training, and
- (5) Health.

These purposes or aims are very closely associated. The order in which they are given is not intended to indicate any greater importance of one purpose as compared with another, but is roughly the order in which they occur, following physical activity. Improvement in knowledge and skill can be shown in a few minutes; bodily development will take days, greater enjoyment of physical activity may come in a week, and improved sportsmanship in a month; health is a larger matter and involves many conditions.

Nothing is to be gained by discussing the relative values of these aims and trying to magnify the importance of one at the expense of another. All are essential, and physical education has suffered much in effectiveness and in reputation because so many

people, without taking pains to think the question through, make a hobby of one or two of them and neglect the others. Some teachers and coaches, for example, stress knowledge, skill and physical development without attempting to make the work recreative, so that their pupils acquire a strong dislike for all physical activity; the leaders of public sentiment in some communities demand military types of training and no athletics, while other communities are pleased with nothing but winning teams. Students preparing to enter the field of physical education should get a sane view of its purposes, so that they will be free from such hobbies themselves and be prepared to promote sane views where such are lacking.

(1) *Knowledge and Skill.* Every physical activity has its mental side. In all games there are rules and strategy to learn before one can succeed as a player; even in running and jumping one has always to use judgment and make quick decisions. Attention, alertness and preparedness for emergencies are demanded everywhere in physical education, not only in gymnastics but even more particularly in competitive activities. The development of these mental abilities is one of the main satisfactions of physical sport; players take great pleasure in the plans of campaign, the signals, the unexpected attack and the carefully planned defense. From the simple tag games of children to the most complicated games of mature athletics, mental development is just as evident and even more rapid than the gain in strength and skill, and this is one reason for the great interest of the players in the mental side of the activity.

The most highly prized of all physical abilities is skill; not skill in the general sense but some particular form of it, such as the skill of the gymnast in turning handsprings or circles about the horizontal bar, the skill of the dancer in difficult yet graceful balancing, or the skill of the ball player in throwing, catching or sliding. Physical education affords the opportunity to develop an endless number of fascinating types of skill. Some types, like those trained in billiards and rifle practice, are not included in physical education because the activity is not vigorous enough to satisfy hygienic aims.

(2) *Securing Physical Development.* Closely allied to skill is speed, cultivated in sprint races and in all kinds of ball games. Few forms of ability are more popular than this. Then there is

6 THE CONDUCT OF PHYSICAL ACTIVITIES

strength, developed in all kinds of physical activity but especially in tumbling, heavy apparatus work, jumping and weight throwing. Endurance is another quality developed in regular practice; swimmers, hikers, dancers, and players of games get much satisfaction from the gain in endurance they are able to notice from day to day.

To keep the bodily organs functioning normally and to develop a reasonably vigorous physique, physical education must provide a large amount of activity of the big muscles. These muscles and the nervous system that controls them constitute the master tissues; the stomach, liver, kidneys, heart, lungs, etc., are designed to keep them fed, cleansed, and in best condition for work. Walking, running, throwing, swimming, climbing and the like stimulate these organs and keep them in normal condition; lack of muscular activity causes a slump in their action and helps to get them out of order. Vigorous muscular activity is also necessary to the normal development of the muscular and nervous systems. Light exercise, such as one gets in dressing, eating, and moving about a school-room, does not bring into action the entire muscular and nervous systems in a mild way, as was formerly supposed; instead it calls into action a few units of muscle and nerve vigorously and leaves the most of those tissues unused; this in turn leads to degeneration of tissue and a permanent loss of bodily power and function. The body, as Bobbitt has pointed out, is to be considered as a reservoir of energy, and ability to achieve and to enjoy depends on keeping the store of energy large; it is the duty of physical education to build up the store of energy in every pupil and keep it high.

Kinds of Activity Needed. At least three qualities are necessary to make physical activity suitable for the development of health and physique:

1. It must involve extensive movement rather than fixed positions of the body, since the latter block the circulation of blood and lymph.
2. It must be varied, using various parts of the body in turn. This principle has perhaps been too much stressed in the past, a perfectly even and harmonious development being insisted upon; enough attention must be given to it at least to prevent distorted postures.

3. It must be reasonably vigorous, so as to stimulate considerable action of heart, lungs, sweat glands, and other vital organs.

The spontaneous play of children is a fine example of healthful activity; the best games and dances involve the same alternation of strenuous and light movement. Marching combined with gymnastics is good if perfectly arranged and taught with the right balance of accurate requirement and enthusiasm, but at its best it is not so good as natural play activity when there is room for the latter; if gymnastics are planned or taught carelessly, all the above principles are apt to be violated. Coaches often drive their athletes to extreme exertion, yet, strange as it may seem, few are injured by it; in fact, the danger of overdoing is small if one is in good health and accustomed to vigorous activity. People may receive harm from over-exertion if they undertake, after a long illness or quiet life, to do something for which they are not fitted. Safety as well as efficiency is gained by keeping fit; regularity is the main point here.

(3) *Recreative Aims.* There are people who claim that the hygienic aims of physical education are the only aims to be considered; that physical educators should keep their eyes steadily on the one aim of promoting health. There are good reasons, however, why recreative aims should be considered.

In the first place, physical education can secure results, hygienic or otherwise, only through the voluntary activity of each individual. The spirit with which a mechanic mends a tire or a physician prescribes a medicine will not go far in this field; the passive acquiescence of the people to be trained is not enough; their active and hearty coöperation must be gained; they must catch the interest and enthusiasm of the instructor. Very few of the pupils, whether young or old, understand and fully appreciate the serious aims that underlie the teacher's interest in the activities, and so activities must be chosen that are naturally attractive,—that is, they must be recreative. Once in a long time we find a teacher with such an attractive personality that whatever he commands is done joyfully; the presence and leadership of the teacher makes everything a recreation. There are only a few such teachers, and moreover, if the activities are not in themselves attractive, so that his

8 THE CONDUCT OF PHYSICAL ACTIVITIES

presence is necessary, the activities have no value later. Exercises that are naturally attractive, conducted in a way to increase their attractiveness rather than to detract from it, secure the vigor and persistence that is needed in practice and lead people to do the same kind of thing habitually.

Again it may be said that the pleasure people have in an attractive activity is in itself health-giving. Pleasure improves digestion, assimilation, and all the normal functions necessary to health; it stimulates the heart and the nervous system and tones up the whole organism. This is one reason why health is not completely ruined by many of the less wholesome amusements people incline to indulge in from lack of better ones.

Employment of Leisure. Leisure is gradually on the increase and naturally will keep on increasing as inventions and forms of organization improve. The eight-hour day for labor is here, the six-hour day is on the way and the four-hour day is talked about. This may be only a remote possibility, but there is enough in the prospect to make many intelligent people look upon it as an approaching calamity, because people choose occupation for their leisure time with so little judgment. When any one goes wrong, physically or morally, it nearly always proves to be due to some habit contracted in leisure time. Leisure is a time of relaxation, and even those who plan their more serious occupations carefully with a view to the best results are apt to choose their amusements merely from habit or by imitation of their friends and acquaintances. A habit of good healthful recreation that has become a fashion in the community is the best possible prevention of such a situation; physical education has the opportunity to create such wholesome fashions.

To provide children and youth with the best and happiest of occupations for their leisure time is as practical as any aim physical education can choose for itself. This will develop the habit of doing wholesome things in leisure instead of amusements that are either useless or harmful. Play of the best kind is just as enjoyable any day as vice, and in the long run it is infinitely more enjoyable. People do not engage in vices because they are in themselves more pleasant and satisfying than anything else, but because vice pays the promoters better and so they promote it more actively and surround it with all kinds of attractive conditions. The

only way gambling, drug habits and other vices can be eliminated is by putting something in their places that is at the same time wholesome and enjoyable.

Finally, true recreation is an end in itself, in addition to its hygienic effects. Pleasure and satisfaction in living are what men live for; when we give pleasure and satisfaction we are giving something of the same grade of value as health itself. Why not aim definitely to give happiness to people while trying to improve their health?

(4) *Social and Moral Training.* Association with others in games and sports cultivates an ability to get along with all kinds of people; practice in playing according to the rules promotes a spirit of good will toward one's companions. Players who lack training or intelligence sometimes show a disregard for fair play and a tendency to win by aggressiveness and force rather than by actual achievement, but with improvement in the quality of coaches and officials there is now a noticeable improvement in sportsmanship among players everywhere. Playing according to the idea that the rules of the game are for all to obey, cultivates habits of honesty, reliability and friendliness toward team mates and opponents. Coaches and directors of physical education have it in their power to see that the best of conditions exist in these ways and that the right spirit prevails. If they have the right aim, the players will enjoy and profit from the sports.

The Growing Interest in Health. Since the Great War there is a steadily growing interest in health. The clear proof that only half of the young men of the country were physically fit for military service jarred the complacent indifference of the average citizen. Once having their eyes opened, people are beginning to pay more serious attention to matters of individual and public health. Constant publicity of the facts in books, magazines and the daily press is making them realize for the first time such things as these: a very large percentage of American children have physical defects that can be prevented or remedied, but which, if neglected, as they have formerly always been, will undermine their health and keep them constantly below par; the human body, like any other machine, needs frequent inspection and intelligent care; the conditions of modern life require most people to get physical activity outside of their occupations. As a consequence of this

10 THE CONDUCT OF PHYSICAL ACTIVITIES

awakening, the hygienic aims of physical education appeal to public sentiment as never before, and even the leaders of general education, who have been among the more indifferent in the past, are saying to-day that health stands first among the aims of education. We can have the financial and moral support of the people if we can show them that we understand the hygienic needs of our pupils and can make physical education actually build health.

The Three-fold Program. The abounding health that every one should have requires three lines of activity or fields of effort:

1. To discover and remove physical defects;
2. To teach healthful habits of living, and the principles that underlie these habits;
3. To conduct physical activities that will keep the bodily organs functioning normally and develop a reasonably vigorous physique.

Diseases and Defects. No plan of promoting health and physique will avail much among those who have badly decayed teeth or chronic appendicitis; these and other diseased conditions and physical defects will, if allowed to remain, keep down bodily vigor and prevent the best of habits and training from accomplishing our aims. When a car develops a leaky radiator or a flat tire, the driver neither gives up his trip nor tries to go on without repairs; he has the defects mended and then goes ahead at full speed. Bodily defects should be found and cured in the same business-like manner. Physical education has suffered in reputation and has fallen short of its possible success because teachers and trainers have tried to promote health when serious defects made health impossible.

Teaching Healthful Habits. The conduct of young children, and to a less extent that of older people, is little affected by what they know; they do what they are in the habit of doing and what they see others do. For these it is evident that leadership and direction are better than the teaching of facts, as a means of promoting health. Showing children how to make themselves clean and having them practice it is more effective than talking to them about the need of it.

Older children want to know the reason for things, and this indicates a need of teaching the principles of health at the proper

time. It can be made a fascinating subject, full of opportunity for investigation, for debate, and for leadership. The crusades of olden times were no more romantic than the modern crusade against disease; no explorer of unknown wilds ever ventured into stranger places nor incurred greater dangers than the men whose business it is to study the great plagues and to learn how to fight them. It is necessary not only to interest the pupils but to present health measures in such a light that they get a new point of view and a new outlook on life. It is hard to change old habits. Notice how soon athletes drop back into their old habits of idleness and dissipation as soon as the season is over. The condition of abounding health the training gives does not seem to them worth the effort, and they become bored with it and anxious to exchange it for the pleasures of loafing, overeating and smoking, which they see others enjoy.

The methods of teaching health to children of all ages is a course by itself fully as long as this one on teaching activities; the gymnasium and field, where physical activities are conducted, are not the most favorable places for doing this teaching. For these reasons, and not because of any lack of appreciation of its importance, the details of health work are not given here.

REFERENCES

- BOBBITT: The Curriculum
 HALLECK: Education of the Central Nervous System
 HETHERINGTON: The School Program in Physical Education
 HUTCHINSON: Exercise and Health
 MANGOLD: Problems of Child Welfare
 TYLER: Growth and Education
 WILLIAMS: Physical Education

TOPICS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Are there good reasons why people now should have more interest in health than former generations have had? What are they?
2. Dr. Storey of New York City College claims that the best way to teach health is for the gymnasium teachers to give a five minutes' talk on some health topic at the opening

12 THE CONDUCT OF PHYSICAL ACTIVITIES

of each floor class. What are the apparent advantages and disadvantages of the plan?

3. Are former athletes apt to smoke, drink and live sedentary lives after leaving college? How can you account for pugilists and other professional athletes becoming invalids from dissipation, when they have learned better?
4. Dr. Bobbitt says it is the duty of physical education to bring every one to the highest possible level of physical efficiency and then keep them there. Is this a sound view? Why do people so often fail to try the plan?
5. Is it better to keep the mind on the serious purpose of the exercise while you practice it? What was wrong with the method of the man who kept his mind from wandering by saying, in rhythm with his steps, "I-am-walking-for-my-health-I-am-walking-etc.?"
6. How can vigorous games and sports be recreation for a lazy man? How can we best appeal to our lazy pupils? Should we drive them to work in the hope that they will come to like it?
7. At what age is it wise for young persons to specialize in physical activity? Which lines of specialization are most harmful to youngsters? What lines are least harmful?
8. Should teachers keep the purposes of physical education in view in planning and conducting their work? What influences tend to make them forget the real aims of the work?
9. Some superintendents and principals and college presidents tell their teachers of physical education that the true test of a successful department of physical education is to win their games against other schools and colleges. What makes them take this stand? How far is it justified?
10. Can the practice they get in physical education help the pupils in their other subjects? In what way? Does it depend upon the way it is taught? How?

CHAPTER II

STIMULATING INTEREST

The aims of physical education that we have just been considering will appeal to teachers and supervisors and serve as a guide in making plans and outlining programs; they may appeal to school boards and possibly to taxpayers as an incentive for voting money to buy equipment and hire teachers; but when we come to the actual practice of physical activities as a habit, sufficient to meet the needs of a normal life, no such appeal to the reason goes very far. People want to do something that will give pleasure and satisfaction at the moment, and they want it so badly that they are apt to choose the most pleasurable thing to do, with very little regard for the consequences. It is for this reason that people smoke, drink, gamble, and engage in still more harmful vices when they know better, and if we wish to make physical activity popular we must bear all this in mind as we make our plans and programs.

American teachers are in substantial agreement to-day on two principles of education: (1) that education is a process of development through activity, rather than a passive absorption of knowledge, and (2) that the best results are accomplished by what people do for themselves, voluntarily, rather than by what they are made to do against their will. It follows that the main problems of teaching are how to awaken and maintain a lively interest in the chosen activity, and how to secure the complete and willing cooperation of those we are to teach. In accord with these ideas, the educational literature of the day is largely made up of (1) discussions of the psychology of interest, and (2) plans, devices, and schemes of organization, intended to infuse the play spirit into educational work. Formerly, teachers looked upon the rod as the best stimulus to educational activity; it has been used from time immemorial to get work out of horses and slaves, and so was naturally the first thing to think of when children must be induced to study; but the rod has gone to the junk pile, along with the horse,

to make way for more efficient inventions—the main faults of the rod being that it killed enthusiasm, kept work down to the level of drudgery, made every one hate school, and created no interest to stimulate educational activity when school was over. Teachers of physical activities especially, because of the short time the pupils are with them, must in self-defense choose methods that will secure a continuation of the activities in the pupils' leisure time, and after school days are over.

The most important incentives to physical activity are several natural incentives, among which we must include the natural tendency to be active, and similar tendencies to enjoy imitation, rhythm and competition.

Activity Is Instinctive. Mention has been made in the preceding chapter of the almost ceaseless activity of children during their waking hours. This activity is too fundamental and natural to be explained; it is in the very nature of muscle and nerve to be active. A humming-bird is constantly on the move simply because it is a humming-bird and not a cabbage. Here is the fundamental difference between plant life and animal life. Plants merely absorb and store up food; animals, possessed of muscle and nerve tissue, use the energy of the food to produce heat and motion. Man, the highest animal, must be active in order to develop ability; hence an instinctive tendency to move, which is to practice the activity that is most natural to man and other animals.

Imitation and Rhythm. As a child's natural tendency to be active subsides, we can stimulate him to action through his enjoyment of imitation and rhythm. Childhood has been named the "Monkey Age," because of the instinct to mimic everything others are seen to do. Kindergarten teachers depend very largely on the tendency of their pupils to imitate. Imitation of another is made still more pleasant by taking the movements in rhythm, and especially with music. Girls continue the enjoyment of imitation and rhythm up to middle life or beyond, and will engage in dancing for hours at a time, while boys gradually lose the desire for rhythmic activity after the age of ten or twelve.

Another feature closely related to this is dramatic imitation. Here imagination comes in, and people or things not present are imitated in narrative form, as in story plays and dances. In mimetic exercises or natural gymnastics pupils in class perform the

movements involved in popular sports, trying to imagine that they are actually playing the game. Exercises selected from games and sports may replace the old types of gymnastics and be practiced at command in class with greater interest.

Competition. Children are interested in competition at an early age and the interest increases throughout the period of school and college. With boys it is the greatest of all interests, while in the case of girls the interest is divided with dancing. Plans to bring competition into play will tone up the interest in almost any type of activity. The interest most people have in self-improvement is closely related to that found in competition. Like all powerful stimuli, competition must be rightly controlled to make it give wholesome results.

Two Types of Competition. As a fourteen-year-old boy in a one-room country school the writer sat with a boy of his own age who was the only other pupil in the grade. To keep us out of mischief when our lessons were done the teacher began by giving us a list of ten towns to find on the map of Missouri in our textbooks of geography, saying, "See which one of you can find all of them first." We went at it for all we were worth and next time called for more. He hunted for lists of places to puzzle us until he tired of it, and then we began making lists for each other to find, racing to see which could first find the places listed by the other. We went from map to map, and before the winter term was over we knew that book from cover to cover.

This type of competition may be defined as trying to excel one another. It works wonders in education, because it secures the hearty coöperation of the pupils and fires their enthusiasm for the more difficult tasks. It is used by teachers in all lines of school work, but is developed to the highest degree in physical education. Here games, tests, tournaments and point systems are organized and conducted with a view to stimulating activity and getting everybody to take part. The purpose is to make every one fond of active sports and to cultivate those abilities and qualities most needed in a citizen. The rules of play are accepted by all because they are seen to be for the common good; the laws of fair play and sportsmanship are enforced by capable officials. The desire to excel is strong, and all its force is needed to stimulate

people to action when they are offered so many opportunities to loll in luxurious ease while sensory thrills amuse them.

As boys in the country school we engaged sometimes in another type of competition. Memory pictures the scene where Victor called Mike a lying Irishman and Mike retaliated with a slap in Victor's face with his tin dinner pail. Blow followed blow and the historic war between the Celt and Teuton was on. The law in this type of competition is the law of the jungle: take every advantage and win at any cost, for the only good of a fight is to win it. The purpose here is to injure your opponent as much as possible; the spirit of hate and revenge prevails.

We see this type of competition exemplified to-day in our commercialized sports, especially in professional boxing, wrestling and baseball. Since the owners believe that the spectators demand winning rather than fair play, the law of the jungle frankly prevails. Players are expected to violate any and every rule of the game whenever it is possible to gain an advantage by so doing.

Professional athletes, because of their unusual strength, skill and quickness of thought and action in play, are the heroes of the day, worshiped by American youth much as the ancients worshiped their gods. Many high school and college boys look forward to possibly becoming professional athletes themselves, and cherish this as their highest ambition. As they read of the great players and watch them play, they realize that their heroes go by the principle of "anything to win" rather than by the modern principle of fair play, and are thereby influenced to do the same.

Right here is the greatest problem of educational games and sports: how to keep school and college sports on an educational and wholesome level instead of following professional sport, which drops back a hundred generations into barbarism.

One strong influence in the right direction is the natural and almost universal appeal that fair play and sportsmanship have for young people. They like to be treated fairly and are willing usually to treat others fairly in return; besides, they take naturally to team play and to agreements, honestly carried out. It appeals to them to have rules of play and they learn that it is in games played according to rules that best fun is to be had. With the improvement in organization and in coaching and officiating that is taking place, players are coming to have a higher respect for

school and college sports and for the principles of sportsmanship by which they are conducted.

In spite of the example of the professional athletes it is possible to keep educational sport clean and wholesome unless the people in authority take the wrong stand. As long as superintendents of schools and college presidents stand strongly for fair play and sportsmanship and insist that these things are more important than winning, especially in their instructions to teachers and coaches, school and college games can be kept clean and honest. The educational authorities who hire coaches to win at any cost and who insist they win or quit are the most serious blocks in the way of progress to-day. Most college coaches and college players would rather be honest, but when the one thing they hear stressed, by irresponsible fans and by their superiors alike, is that they must win or make room for those who will, we must expect dishonesty in sport.

Honors, Trophies and Marks. Trophies and honors furnish incentive for an enormous amount of educational work that would languish without them. Theoretically, the use of awards is justified by well-known facts of human nature. No matter how wise or enthusiastic we may be, no matter how well we understand that in the last analysis prizes and honors are but trifles in comparison with the knowledge and development that constitute the real aim of education, yet for every one the time comes when enthusiasm for the great purposes of life, so far away and so intangible, fades away, so that we need the spur of some prize that is near, visible and easy to attain, to tide us over the slump. Alarm clocks, mile-posts and speedometers often ward off failure at such times and save our reputations; the small honor, won in a day, may do the same thing. In practice, trophies are found to be of value in stimulating athletic practice; governments use prizes and honors to maintain the efficiency of their military, naval and diplomatic departments; commercial corporations, as well as schools and colleges, use such devices to hold up morale.

The most popular trophies given for success in physical activity are sweaters, medals and cups for individuals, banners, cups and plaques for teams and schools. Athletic clothing and equipment are frequently used as awards, also watches, watch-fobs and other forms of jewelry. Money prizes are sometimes given, but only

to professional athletes: the Amateur Athletic Union, the governing body in such matters in the U. S. A. has ruled that amateur athletes may not accept a money prize nor any prize having a commercial value greater than \$35, on penalty of losing amateur standing and the right to compete in amateur contests.

Until recent times, only the one best contestant in any event was awarded a prize, but now, with a view to encouraging greater numbers to practice and compete, several minor prizes are also awarded. For the last fifty years it has been customary to award prizes to the three best contestants; this has proved so successful that there is a noticeable tendency to increase the number from three to four or more. Another plan of widening the interest is to divide the contestants into classes, based on age, weight, etc., and to award a full set of prizes to the several winners in each class. By increasing the number of awards, the interest has been extended to many instead of the few, but at the same time it has increased the expense. The Michigan Intercollegiate Athletic Association awards prizes each year to the value of \$350; The Belle Isle meet, conducted by the Detroit Public Schools, calls for an outlay considerably larger. People who have money to give for worthy objects sometimes buy the trophies, since it is an attractive cause and brings public recognition to the donor as well as to the winners of the prizes. In many educational institutions the cost of trophies has become something of a financial burden. In the State Normal College at Ypsilanti, for example, the expense of trophies is about 10 per cent of the entire athletic budget. This growing expense, as the scope of athletic participation is widened, suggests an inquiry into the underlying principles of awards and into past experience that may indicate something as to their value.

Awards fall naturally into two classes: honors and prizes. Prizes are more or less expensive; honors cost little or nothing. The custom of giving large prizes arose centuries ago when kings and wealthy nobles gave athletic festivals as a means of amusing themselves and at the same time gaining favor with the common people. Costly prizes drew the best talent and gave an impression of generosity. To-day the promoters of commercial sport, such as baseball and boxing, pay big wages and bonuses to their players because their own financial success depends upon it. It is worth while to observe that the two sources from which schools and

colleges have copied the custom of giving prizes are not educational in nature or purpose.

One of the earliest instances we know of the awarding of honors was at the Olympic Festivals of ancient Greece. This was an educational enterprise, carried on to stimulate physical activity among the youth of a great nation. If we have doubts of the possibility of stimulating athletic activity without expensive prizes, the Olympic Festivals are a case in point. For ten centuries they were the leading athletic events of the civilized world, and in all that time they never gave a single prize having any commercial value. The Olympic Festivals had to compete for popularity against the similar festivals staged at frequent intervals by various cities and states, many of which were more populous and more wealthy than Olympia, and in many of which prizes of value were awarded; yet they maintained unquestioned supremacy, both as to attendance and participation. Historians do not say plainly why these festivals were more popular than all the others, but while they complain of many evils in athletics, practically no complaints are made of the management and the awards at Olympia. By requiring all contestants to practice for thirty days before the festival under the direction of the officials of the contest, they gave every competitor a clear idea of all the rules and conditions—something often lacking even in this day of printed rule books. The officials were capable and to an unusual degree honest and impartial. Complete confidence of athletes and public in the ability and integrity of management and judges is without doubt the main reason for the continued popularity.

Educators are inclined to look with skepticism on the value of prizes and to award honors sparingly. The most familiar example of scholastic honors is the Phi Beta Kappa—election to an honorary fraternity, the one so chosen buying his own insignia of membership. When a prize of too great value is given to stimulate educational work, it has the fatal defect of taking the attention of the contestants too completely away from the real aim of the activity and putting a false aim in the place of it. When, for example, the trophies awarded to an athletic team are commercially valuable beyond a certain point, the boys are given a wrong idea of what it is all about; instead of understanding that the prize is an incidental matter, offered to stimulate them to better

educational work, which is after all the thing of vastly more importance, the prize becomes to them the real aim in life; they view themselves as reflecting honor on their institution, and the prize as wages due them; the only knowledge worth while now is a knowledge of their favorite sport, henceforth to be a life-work; ideals of scholarship and citizenship are completely overcast by the shadow of an excessive prize.

While the above considerations throw some doubt on the wisdom of awarding trophies of as much commercial value as those now in vogue, it is not likely that the system will be abandoned by many in the near future. Youth is conservative; boys who have looked forward since childhood to the winning of medals and sweaters are not likely to forego this pleasure for the sake of an abstract idea of what is best in education. Still, there are signs of a change of view; a large meeting of college girls last year voted in favor of abolishing from awards made to girls and women, all athletic trophies having commercial value.

In this connection it is well to notice a plan of award that is now being used successfully by the Playground and Recreation Association of America, the Camp-fire Girls, the Boy Scouts of America, the American Red Cross, and some other organizations. The playground group, wishing to stimulate city children to practice physical activity, offers to every child who will pass certain physical tests a bronze badge of attractive design that costs twenty cents; a second and a third badge can be won in like manner. The project has attained wonderful success; every year thousands of children do the work and receive the badge, paying for it themselves. The numbers involved are so great that no organization could afford to finance it, but the cost of one badge seems to offer no obstacle to the individual who wins it. The merit badges of the scouts, the beads awarded to Camp-fire girls for educational work, and the insignia awarded to swimmers and life-savers by the Red Cross are paid for by the people who win them, and the cost to the individual, as in case of the play badge, seems to be no hindrance to the popularity of the awards. Here is a type of award that costs the institution practically nothing and works as well as an incentive to educational work as more expensive prizes. The essentials of this plan are a definite goal, clearly stated and requiring a reasonable amount of work, definite times

and places for giving the tests, and prompt award of the honor when the work is done.

A similar plan of awards adopted in Ypsilanti last spring may be of interest here. A sophomore girl, president of the Physical Educational Club, suggested that the club use a fund on hand to stimulate interest in posture. She designed a felt emblem to be worn on the gymnasium suit, and proposed that the Club award these to all students passing the regular posture test. The expense proved too great for the Club to assume, and so, in view of the success of the plan above mentioned, it was decided to award the emblems and let the winners pay for them. At this date several hundreds of these emblems have been sold at twenty-five cents each and students clamor for more whenever the supply is temporarily exhausted. We feel that the award is stimulating effort to maintain good posture, and expect to continue it.

Marks for Physical Education. The marks that we give pupils for the work they do, both at the end of a term and at other times, are awards, and should be of great use in stimulating educational work; high marks are honors; low marks are evidence that an honor has not been reached. If teachers would look upon these marks as they look upon trophies and prizes, the pupils would be led to do the same, and a big gain would be realized. The main trouble in the matter is that standards and plans of marking are too indefinite and too little understood by the pupils, with the result that they believe marks to be given according to the whim and prejudice of teachers rather than fairly in accord with work done. A boy is likely to earn a swimming trophy, because he knows just what he must do to get it, and has confidence that when he has done the work he will be given the award. In the gymnasium class his idea of what is expected of him is hazy; he is not at all sure what points in the activities of the class count most toward a high mark; he has experienced disappointment before and feels dissatisfied with the marks he gets.

In marking for class work in physical activity, attendance and ability should both count; posture may be considered as a part of the ranking under ability, but some teachers prefer to give it a separate mark; it is also coming into favor to mark on sportsmanship. Physical ability should be marked on certain days when the pupils know they are being tested, and they should be given

22 THE CONDUCT OF PHYSICAL ACTIVITIES

exercises carefully selected to show their progress in the activity that is being carried on as class work. At least once a month such a test should be given; posture tests may be a part of the ability test or made a separate test. Sportsmanship means the pupil's general attitude toward the work and toward teacher and fellow students; upper grade pupils will often mark their fellows in sportsmanship more justly than the teacher can do it; let each one mark the list and average the marks they give. Class record will give the attendance, and with monthly ability tests it is easy to combine the results. The following examples will illustrate:

A perfect record—

Physical ability.....	40 points
Posture	10 points
Sportsmanship	10 points
Attendance	40 points

TOTAL 100 points

An imperfect record—

Physical ability (good).....	32 points
Posture (poor).....	5 points
Sportsmanship (good).....	8 points
Attendance ($\frac{3}{4}$ time).....	30 points

TOTAL 75 points

The time for physical activity is always so short that old-time ways of marking attendance, such as calling roll, must be discarded. One of the best ways to mark attendance is to have some one who knows all the pupils at sight check the list as they enter the room. When this is not feasible, call the class to floor numbers and mark the vacant places. To avoid the usual waste of time at the beginning of the hour, while the slow ones are coming in, it is a good plan to have a free-play period first, setting all at popular activities as soon as they arrive; this encourages prompt arrival instead of the usual plan of waiting for all to arrive, which encourages dawdling. Take the attendance at the most convenient time in the hour, which may be as they march out. Attendance should always have a larger place in marking for physical activity than in other subjects, because the hygienic effect of regular exercise is important.

It is not easy to set standards in new subjects, such as physical

activities, but by the time pupils reach junior high school, any teacher who has had training and experience should be able to plan the work of a term and set a standard for passing so that the pupils can understand it and so that fair and definite tests can be given as a basis for marking. If games are practiced, pupils should be expected to learn the manner of playing the game and its rules; written tests can be given on matters of this kind. Besides, tests of the kinds of ability the game develops should be worked out and posted. For example, in baseball for eight grade boys, one could use tests like these:

(1) Of five easy pitched balls, how many can he bat out of the diamond?

(2) Of five fly balls, how many can he catch?

(3) Of five ground balls batted to him in the infield, how many can he field to first without an error? How many before the runner can reach it?

(4) Out of five trials, how many times can he hit a pitching target?

(5) Out of five trials, how many times can he throw from home to first so baseman can reach the ball without stepping off?

In folk dances, it is fair to expect a knowledge of the steps of the dance and their order, shown by either written statement or practical demonstration. Small groups can be tested in ability to dance certain steps or figures while the rest look on, and the grades awarded may be stated, so that all may know what the standard is. If there is a doubt as to the advisability of saying openly what a certain performance is marked, it shows a defect in the plan, probably lack of definiteness in the standard required. Proper standards and fair decisions always gain the approval of the class; the marking must be fair and the pupils must know it is fair.

Teachers who will test and mark in this manner will find that the marks given have the same value as a trophy, stimulating interest and securing a high degree of coöperation on the part of the pupils. No marks awarded in secret by the snap judgment of a teacher will ever have this stimulating effect. The experience we have had in awarding trophies should teach us how to award marks.

Arousing Interest Among the Teachers. A great deal of co-

operation with superintendents, principals, supervisors and other teachers in the school system is necessary to make the plan of physical activities work smoothly and secure best results. The teacher of physical education should make the acquaintance of all these people, talk over common problems and find the points of view they have, learn of their work and ideas, and in a general way show interest in other features of school life and work. Sometimes a teacher of physical education is able to earn the respect and confidence of the other teachers by planning and conducting a class in physical activity of some kind for them. He can find many opportunities to be accommodating, and it pays in the long run to go more than half-way in the exchange of good turns. The plans of work should be talked over freely with superintendent and principal, suggestions asked, and willingness shown to conduct the work according to their wishes.

Arousing Public Interest. The interest and approval of the parents is needed as well as that of pupils and the other members of the teaching staff. The public provides the financial and moral support that the superintendent and school board require in order to supply our needs and extend our opportunities. We have been able to reach the public for many years through their attendance at ball games, and public interest in athletic games is on the increase; interest is also growing in tournaments and games between teams and leagues organized within the school system, such as class championships, church leagues, and contests between various local groups. Besides conducting activities like these, to which the public is admitted, it is well to give demonstrations of class work two or three times a year, with special invitation sent to the parents. Programs of this kind require a certain amount of co-operation with the teachers, to secure the time of the pupils and help in conducting the demonstration. Activities can be chosen from the regular class work that will be interesting to the parents, without much extra planning or practice; the program should show work regularly done in class, and not a show especially prepared for the occasion. The program should be carefully planned to avoid delays and confusion, and must not be too long. Play festivals, pageants, or even a circus are not beyond the possibilities of a department in a school system. Small groups can be trained to give dances or games before parent-teacher clubs.

REFERENCES

- ADAMS: The Spirit of Youth and the City Streets
GARDINER: Greek Athletic Sports and Festivals
HALL: Youth; Its Education, Régime and Hygiene
Adolescence, 2 vols.
JOHNSON: Education by Plays and Games
LEE: Play in Education

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Is ability principally inherited or acquired? How acquired? What relation between amount of practice and degree of ability?
2. What is the most probable explanation of the strong tendency of all children to be active? How is this tendency lost? Is there any relation between this and old age?
3. What is the most probable explanation when any one has to be driven to take part in an activity? How well is he likely to do it, and what degree of ability is apt to be gained? Best line of procedure to get results?
4. Why do nearly all people unconsciously resort to fear of punishment as the motive to better action? To what extent are they wise in so doing? If it is effective with horses, why not with children?
5. Why are children more interested in imitation than older people? Why is dramatic imitation more interesting than simple imitation?
6. What is the feature of rhythmic activity that makes it so attractive? Why do girls have a greater interest in it than boys, and maintain it longer?
7. Why is competition so often referred to as "the fighting instinct"? Why so much more fighting of the most primitive sort in Europe than in the United States and Canada?
8. Should reading and writing be compulsory? Why? Does the same apply to physical education? If not, why not? Do the same reasons apply?
9. What do you think of the plan often carried out at state fairs of offering a large prize to the person showing best health and physique? Should schools and colleges do the same?

26 THE CONDUCT OF PHYSICAL ACTIVITIES

10. Give an estimate of the relative values of incentives that stimulate a member of a school or college team: enjoyment of the activity, personal influence of the coach, honor achieved, sweaters and other prizes, trips to other institutions, other motives.

CHAPTER III

RELATIVE VALUES

Having discussed in the preceding chapters the more serious purposes of physical education and the incentives that impel people to engage in physical activity, we are now in a position to inquire into the relative values of gymnastics, athletics, dancing, and all the separate activities we employ for the accomplishment of our aims. A consideration of the strong and weak points of each type of activity should be a help when we come to the selection of activities for our programs.

(*Age, Sex, Interest.* The value of an activity for health, recreation or training depends not only on the nature of the exercise but fully as much on how well it is suited to the age and sex of the pupils and how much interest they have in it. Children will never enter into an activity with vigor and enthusiasm just because it is healthful or educative; such aims are all important to those who plan and conduct the activities, but are too remote and abstract to maintain the interest of even mature people for any considerable time. To get the action we need, the activities must appeal to the natural desires for movement, for imitation, for rhythm, and for competition. Right here is the main value of organization; choosing such activities as running, jumping, throwing, bending and twisting, we organize them into tag games for young children, into dramatic dances for high school girls, and into football games for men, and so adapt the movements to the age, sex and interest of those taking part. We need many more stunts, games, dances, relay races and tests of ability, suited more completely than those we have to all ages and conditions of people, and suited to accomplish the fundamental aims of our profession.

Class Gymnastics. By this we mean exercises taken in unison in imitation of a teacher or leader while the class stands in open formation on the gymnasium floor. With young children, gymnastics are often given by simple imitation of the leader, who stands before the class and performs the exercises, the pupils trying to

follow; with older persons, commands are used and in some cases musical accompaniment.

When at their very best, class gymnastics have a high value for health and education; their social and recreative value is always low. The health value depends on how well the exercises are chosen, how well interest is maintained, and how well the quantity of work involved is suited to the condition of the class. The action is usually too slight to be best for heart, lungs, etc. The educational value depends on how clear and definite are the explanations and demonstrations of exercises and how accurately the pupils do the work. If the lessons are carelessly planned or not planned at all, as often is the case, and if the teaching is poor, very little of value is accomplished in any direction. When taught by a vigorous and enthusiastic teacher and not given too often, gymnastics may be enjoyed and hence taken with force, but they then make a heavy drain on the vitality of the teacher. Musical accompaniment of a lively kind is a help here. One of the main advantages of gymnastics is the large number that can be handled on a small space. Their greatest weakness lies in their utter dependence on the knowledge, care, vigor, and skill of the teacher.

Individual Gymnastics. This title refers to gymnastic exercises performed by pupils individually rather than in unison. The most usual examples of individual gymnastics are the taking of remedial exercises by pupils having postural defects, the practice of exercises on stationary apparatus, and preliminary practice of the elements of a game under direction of the coach, as in football or in basket ball. The interest of the participants is usually well sustained here, without the need of special stimulation by the teacher, because of the clear motive in the minds of the pupils. The program is not so varied nor so well balanced as a lesson in class gymnastics can be, and should make up only a part of a pupil's weekly training. Educational and recreative values are high, with more chance for social training than in formal class work. Apparatus work, with which tumbling is usually included, develops strength and skill rather than the vital functions and so lacks the highest hygienic value, along with the other kinds of individual gymnastics. Bar work is in the main beyond the strength of girls, and care has to be used to select exercises within the power of younger boys. Constant care must be taken to avoid injuries from

falling. Apparatus work resembles gymnastic dancing in developing a very high degree of balance and control of the body, and so serves as a practical safeguard against accidental injury, to which every one is liable. The strong point of individual gymnastics is their high educational value in a limited field. Swimming is another kind of activity in which there is a good deal of individual practice in imitation of a teacher, and here the range of activity is wider.

Dramatic Imitation. Dramatic imitation is seen in playing horse, train or school. Instead of imitating the movement of a leader who is present, the player makes believe he is some one else and does what he imagines a horse, a train or a teacher would do. Young children are very fond of this and the kindergarten employs it extensively. Its most important use in physical education is in a device called a "Story Play." These plays are used in the two or three lower grades with success depending, as in gymnastic lessons, entirely on the skill and effort of the teacher. Enjoyment of make-believe is gradually lost by many children after the age of eight or ten, but older children and even high school and college students get a stimulus from it in what are known as "Mimetic Exercises" or "Natural Gymnastics." Here we have a gymnastic lesson with the exercises taken from familiar games, such as baseball or soccer or from track and field sports. The movements from games and sports that have most of the good ing to imagine themselves in the game, although they have no apparatus such as the game involves. Skillful teachers can choose movements from games and sports that have most of the good qualities of Swedish and German gymnastics, while the greater interest of the participants in practicing elements of familiar games and sports adds much zest and vigor. Some get a still stronger stimulus if asked to imagine themselves to be some famous player as the practice is carried on.

The method of dramatic imitation involves all the good and bad points of class gymnastics, except that the interest of the pupils is increased by the dramatic features, so that the activities are more apt to be practiced vigorously and repeated in leisure time. Even when heartily enjoyed, a lesson of this kind, if badly planned, may have low hygienic and educational values.

Rhythmic Activities. These activities are imitative and often

dramatic, but the rhythm is a more important feature in the minds of those taking part. Included in the list are simple rhythms, song plays, folk dances, clogs and jigs, natural dancing, æsthetic dancing, and social dancing. Rhythmic exercises are usually more hygienic and less educative than class gymnastics because the rhythm and accompaniment makes action more continuous and prevents much attention to details. Dances differ a great deal in vigor, in mental and social value and in attractiveness, so that much depends on selection. Song plays and folk dances vary greatly in the vigor and attention required; jigs and clogs are strong in both hygienic and educational values; natural and folk dancing possess high educational values. Social dancing is of least value of all, lacking in vigor, demanding little skill, and often conducted under unhygienic conditions. Social dancing is the most popular form of bodily exercise among young of marriageable age, because it brings the sexes together so intimately, but it should not for that reason be made a prominent part of the activities of younger pupils.

Free Play. Free play is so called because the players are left to play about as they choose, with enough supervision to arrange suitable groups, see that each group has its space and equipment, and provide rotation of groups in the most popular activities. On the playground there is opportunity for free play at the sand piles, with light equipment such as balls and jumping ropes, and on the playground apparatus, such as swings, ladders, giant-stride and the like. In the gymnasium the teacher can organize free play with the same light equipment or on mats, ladders, horses, bars, etc. Out-of-doors it may take the form of hikes, bird walks, tree walks, etc.; at the water there can be swimming, wading, rowing, canoeing; while in the snowy season there may be coasting, skating, skiing.

Informal play is largely imitative, but it differs from most imitative activities in its greater freedom and in being more or less fixed in character by the nature of the place or equipment. While the teacher, for example, can conduct imitative activities like "Simon Says" that are too quiet to have any health value, play on the swings or with jumping ropes are sure to be vigorous physical activity, and while the movements may not be carefully made, there is such a variety of movements practiced that the educative value is high. The social value of free play is also high,

because of the natural social contact that is constantly taking place, with opportunity for the best of training when there is good supervision. Informal competition is also a feature.

Ability Tests. Physical tests like the playground badge tests stimulate children to practice physical activities both at school and in free play when away. Besides the freedom of the casual practice we have just been considering there is here a little informal competition, players comparing their abilities with others and also with their own former accomplishments. The tests have been well chosen and as a consequence the practice has high value, for health, education and recreation; the social value is not so high and yet it is not lacking. Ability tests appeal most at the age of junior high school, but are not without value with younger and older persons. Experience shows that tests for boys and girls should be different, because of the growing difference in ability and interest in certain activities.

Competition. The desire to excel is the strongest of all incentives to physical activity. It increases through the years that children are in school, particularly in boys, the girls dividing their interest between competition and rhythm. Competitive activities have high value for education, for recreation and for the development of social qualities. The hygienic value varies all the way from nothing, as we have in cards and chess, up to the very highest of any activity, as is seen in the best of active games.

We have two main types of competitive activity: contests, where we have comparisons of ability in the narrowest lines, as in sprinting or jumping, and other elements of sport; and games, where the player may choose what he will do from a variety of actions permitted by the rules.

Contests. The hygienic value is high in this group if there is a suitable degree of physical activity and a variety of it; the competition being in narrow lines tends to narrow specialization, with strain in some directions and lack of activity in others. To overcome this defect in track athletics many coaches put their teams through many events in daily practice; the pentathlon, hexathlon and decathlon have been devised to stimulate a wide range of activity in actual competition.

Training for accurate form in track and field events has a high

educational value; recreative value is also high, both with regard to recreation enjoyed in the training and in the carry-over element, training in these events making it likely that the man will practice similar activities later in life. The social contact is considerable, making the social value large.

The greatest defect of this kind of competition as a feature of physical education has been the limited number who can win, which naturally cuts down the number taking part. Recent developments in organization have improved this condition greatly by the introduction of competition between groups, both by relay events and by use of new methods of scoring, so that many can help in a team's score. The latter plan applies also to swimming, diving and apparatus work, and also gives a variety of activities in relay contests.

Games. There are three natural groups of games: the elementary games, including goal and tag games; the combative activities, such as boxing and wrestling; and the team games, such as baseball and basket ball. Games are the most interesting of all activities after childhood for the most of people, and so the educational and recreative values are very high; the intimate contact among players makes the social value especially high; the hygienic value varies with the game.

Elementary Games. Games of goal and tag have so much of running, dodging, chasing and strategy that their educational and hygienic value is very high. Since they can usually be played in small groups they are very useful in the leisure time of children, giving important recreative and social values. Some of these games have been devised for social gatherings and are too quiet to have much hygienic effect; games like "drop the handkerchief" have this fault, requiring most of the players to stand or sit while only two are active. Where such games occupy a whole evening they are active enough, but for a gymnasium period they lack action and more active ones should be chosen.

Combat. Games of personal combat, like boxing and wrestling, are popular among boys from junior high school on, and are excellent for the aims of physical education. They are not suited to girls and involve some difficulties in management, because of needed space and equipment and careful instruction and supervision.

Team Games. Most of these games involve quick physical

activity of varied character, close social contact under supervision, and give the highest degree of pleasure to the players, consequently they rank among the very best activities for accomplishing all the aims of physical education. Their carry-over value is limited because they are so highly organized and require a definite and usually a large number to play, while they occupy considerable space. In schools, colleges and summer playgrounds, where large numbers must be cared for, these things are not an objection.

Tennis. Tennis occupies considerable space, but is among the best of activities to develop skill, strength, speed, endurance, and good social qualities. It can be played by two, three or four, and permits a wide range in vigor, being suitable either for women and younger children or for the most athletic of men. Handball is a rather more vigorous game of the tennis family which is becoming popular.

Volley Ball. Here twelve to twenty players can be employed on a space as large as a tennis court or even smaller. It requires a lot of team work and affords moderately vigorous action if not too many are put on a team. With six or eight on a team the action is enough to give good hygienic value. With more on a team several are apt to stand and do little.

Baseball. This is one of the best games for educational, social and recreative purposes, while the hygienic value varies widely. The pitcher and catcher always have plenty of action, but when nine or more make a team, some of them get little bodily exercise. Though originally planned for men, baseball is well suited to women and children when the larger and softer ball is used, the field made smaller, and the rules simplified. It is suited to a small space and less likely to cause injury, as well as less expensive, when the modified game is used. Players of greatly differing strength and ability cannot play well together, as they can in volley ball and some other games, because there is danger of injury to the less vigorous players, while the better ones lose interest. The traditions of baseball are bad socially, but careful supervision of the game among children is improving this situation.

Football. American football is a rough game for boys and men. It is strong in all values when played under good conditions by players who are suited to it and who are of nearly equal strength

and weight. It requires much space and extensive equipment, and so is not suitable for all the boys of a school.

Soccer and Speedball. These are games of the football variety that have much the same physical education values as football but are less rough and require less equipment. The rules are also simpler and can be used in simplified form for younger boys. An advantage over other games we have discussed is that it can be played with satisfaction in cold weather, even if there is some snow.

Basket Ball. The free running game used for boys is among the best for physical education except that it is likely to be too severe for growing boys and for girls and women. Dividing the game into quarters instead of halves and shortening these for younger boys helps in this regard, but it does not prevent injury in practice, when no time is kept and continuous play is kept up. Such practice should be broken by intervals in which light practice, such as goal-throwing, is done.

The game played by girls and women gives excellent physical activity when the teams are well balanced, but when one side is weak, the weak team, except the jumping center and guards, is apt to have little to do.

Several games used as an introduction to basket ball are much milder. This is true of endball, captain ball and batball, while keepball is still more strenuous.

Field Hockey, as played in this country by girls and women, is very much like soccer and speedball in its general effects, except that the arms are used more.

Intramural Competition. This term is used to indicate competition within the playground, school, college or other institution. All forms of imitative activity are likely to lack vigor of action and social contact. For this reason the old-fashioned program of physical education, which was made up almost entirely of imitative activity, needs a certain amount of competition to give life to it. By a careful organization of classes into smaller groups, competition may be introduced into the daily program. In later chapters of this course such plans of organizations will be worked out in detail.

TABLE OF VALUES

	Hygienic	Educational	Recreative	Social
Class Gymnastics.....
Individual Gymnastics...
Dramatic Imitation.....
Rhythmic Activity.....
Free Play.....
Physical Contests.....
Elementary Games.....
Combat
Tennis
Baseball
Football
Basket Ball.....

REFERENCES

- BOLIN: Gymnastic Problems
 BRINTON: The Pursuit of Happiness
 CURTIS: The Play Movement and Its Significance
 GULICK: The Philosophy of Play
 MACLAREN: Physical Education
 RAINWATER: The Play Movement

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. What are the features of an activity that give it a high hygienic value? High educational value? High social value? High recreative value?
2. Why are pupils apt to be less enthusiastic over class gymnastics than over dances and games? In which of the fundamental values do natural gymnastics have higher rating than Swedish or German gymnastics?
3. It has been claimed that gymnastics are always superior to games because they are planned purposely to benefit the pupils while in a game it is a matter of chance what the exercise will be. To what extent is this claim justified?
4. What teachers of physical education would be benefited by a kindergarten training? In what respect would they become better teachers?
5. Why do dances have more hygienic value than gymnastics? Why do dances have more recreative value than gym-

36 THE CONDUCT OF PHYSICAL ACTIVITIES

nastics? Why do dances have less educational value than gymnastics? Why do dances have less social value than games?

6. Compare track and field sports in general with dances and games as to the four fundamental values.
7. Compare football with tennis as to fundamental values.
8. Compare volley ball with basket ball in same way.
9. Compare speedball with soccer in same way.
10. Criticize the ratings given the various activities in the table.
Where would you give a higher and where a lower rating?

CHAPTER IV

TEACHING GYMNASTIC MOVEMENTS

Gymnastic movements, given by command to large classes practicing in unison, have in the past formed the largest part of the physical activities conducted in our schools. For reasons already given, they are now being gradually replaced by more useful activities, and yet they still hold a place in most systems of physical training. Since our young and beginning teachers must conduct more or less of gymnastic work, they should learn how to do it well. The technique of teaching gymnastics is the simplest of all, and therefore is placed first.

Teaching gymnastic movements includes demonstration of the exercises, the giving of commands, and the observation and criticism of the work of the class.

DEMONSTRATION

The first step in learning a new muscular movement is to get a clear idea of it. It is plain that the teacher who is to give this clear idea to the pupils must have a perfectly clear and accurate idea of it himself. There can be no true teaching without this; to go before a class and pretend to teach when one has no clear and vivid concept to present is the most unpardonable sin in all teaching. All attempts in courses like this to develop methods and principles of teaching are lost on people who do not know what they are to teach.

The process of making an exercise in gymnastics clear to a class may be called demonstration, using the word in the sense in which it is used in geometry. To make the most clear and vivid mental picture of anything it is necessary to appeal to the eye; that is, the exercise must be seen by the class. It follows that the teacher must not only have a clear idea of the exercise but he must be able to perform it accurately; everything depends on this. If clothing or some physical disability makes it impossible for the

teacher to do this, a pupil who can take the exercise will answer, or even a chart showing pictures of it can be used.

While the exercise is being shown the essential things about it must be stated, to prevent the pupils from emphasizing non-essentials; just as the pupils need, when they explain their problems in mathematics, to point to the work on the blackboard, to direct the attention of their hearers to what they are saying, so the teacher needs to refer directly to the exercise while it is before their eyes. If it has a definite purpose, or a particular fault is common, it is well to mention it, as it may add to the clearness of the idea given to the class. The exercise usually needs to be shown from different points of view, and nothing should be neglected that will make plain what is to be done. The common language of conversation is to be used rather than the condensed form of definition used in books.

At the same time the teacher must avoid telling too much. Clearness demands simplicity. If an exercise has too many points about it to be readily grasped and remembered at one telling, it should be divided into parts if possible; if this is not feasible it is sometimes best to tell of the details in part only and have the pupils try it, giving the minor details after the most important things have been fixed in mind. It requires some judgment to decide how much to say and how to say it; the tendency of the teacher is in general to talk too much, to fail to plan well enough what to say, and to say it in too indifferent a tone.

PROJECTS FOR PRACTICE

1. Test your own ability to take gymnastic positions by practicing them before a mirror or under the observation of another student.
2. Plan definitely and in detail just how you would present each of these positions to a class of pupils to whom they are new. Apply the principles stated above so as to secure a clear and accurate mental picture in the minds of the pupils.

Recitation of this lesson will involve standing before the class and demonstrating one or more of the positions, as an illustration of how the student thinks it should be done.

THE USE OF FORMAL COMMANDS

When gymnastic exercises are taught to pupils individually, it is not necessary to give commands, any more than to pupils who are being sent to the blackboard or to those who are called on to recite. Commands are needed when exercises are to be performed by classes in unison. There is a feeling common among pupils that commands are something imposed upon them in an objectionable way, ordering them about and treating them as menials. As a matter of fact, a command is in these respects just like the other directions given by the teacher in conducting the work of the school. The command is simply a direction of what to do coupled with a signal telling when it is to be done.

Class work in gymnastics should be done in unison for several reasons.

(1) For the sake of appearance. Exercises done out of unison give an appearance of confusion and disorder that not only looks bad to spectators but reacts badly on pupils and teacher. There is a feeling of system and unity produced by work in exact unison that is worth having.

(2) What is probably more important, gymnastics must be taken in unison so that the teacher can observe the work of the class and give the assistance needed. When the exercises are taken in exact unison it is possible for an experienced teacher to see at once who is doing the work correctly, who is wrong, and what is the fault, but the least defect in the unison will always attract the teacher's attention from the movements themselves, thus hiding what should be seen.

The wording and speaking of commands must therefore be such as will secure exact unison in the work of the class.

A typical command consists of two parts:

(1) An explanatory part, which should give all necessary information of what is to be done;

(2) An executive part, or signal for action, which tells when to do it.

The typical form of the explanatory part is the imperative form of sentence, which begins with the verb; as, *Raise arms forward; swing bells sidewise; place right foot backward; march forward; face about.* The wording is as if the command was addressed to

one individual; as, *bend head backward* (not heads); *swing right foot sidewise* (not feet); *twist trunk to right* (not trunks).

The executive part of the command is formed in either of two ways:

(1) The verb is taken from its place at the beginning of the explanatory part and used as the signal for action; as, *arms forward—raise; bells sidewise—swing! right foot backward—place! forward—march!* etc., or

(2) The explanatory part is left in its regular form, with the verb leading, and the numbers, *one, two*, etc., are used as the executives; as, *raise arms sidewise—one! lower them to sides—two! swing bells forward—one! swing them downward—two! face about in two counts—one! two!*

There are some familiar exceptions to these rules for wording commands; as *hips,—firm, right shoulder,—arms!* Such exceptions work no inconvenience in case of exercises that every one knows, and especially in systems where there are but few commands in all; but in school gymnastics, where exercises are many, it is a big advantage, both to teachers and pupils, to have commands worded according to some uniform plan. The guiding principle must in every case be the need of clearness; the command must leave no doubt whatever as to *what* is to be done, *how* it is to be done, and *when* it is to be done.

The speaking of commands is just as important as their wording; the popular feeling against commands has arisen largely because some pompous persons speak them in such a domineering manner. The explanatory part of the command should be spoken plainly, so that all in the class can hear, at about the speed of common conversation, and should close with a falling inflection. The falling inflection is an aid to clearness, because it indicates that the explanatory part of the command is completed; as *Hips firm and right foot forward!*

Following the explanatory part should come a pause, long enough for the pupils to think over and fully comprehend all that has been said. Few beginning teachers appreciate the importance of this or realize how long it requires. Failure to give a sufficient pause results in two serious faults in the class work for which of course the pupils are not responsible:

(1) A part of the class is not ready to act when the executive part is given, and consequently the work is not in unison.

(2) Slow pupils get in the habit of watching pupils in front of them, imitating their movements, and paying no attention to commands. The length of pause that is necessary varies both with the complexity of the exercise and with the quickness with which it should be done. Slight lack of unison is not conspicuous and hence not troublesome in slow exercises, such as heel raising, leg raising, and some other movements, while in quick movements like foot placing, arm flinging, etc., it is very important that all the pupils start the exercise at the same instant; a long pause is therefore much more necessary in the latter.

The executive word should be spoken in a vigorous and animated tone, not necessarily louder than the preceding part, and should end with a slightly rising inflection. This rising inflection helps the voice to be heard plainly and gives a pleasant and encouraging effect, while the mental effect of the falling inflection in this case is not good. Any teacher who habitually finishes commands with the falling inflection will get the reputation of being cross and arbitrary; in fact, it sounds that way to one who hears it. *Arms sideward—raise!*

The tone of voice in which commands are spoken is important. It is not easy to explain distinctions here, but it is easy to notice them; one who speaks as if interested, enthusiastic, and confident, will impress the pupils as having those qualities; an indifferent, monotonous, or cross tone affects the class seriously. Teachers are apt to drop to an indifferent tone on the commands for returning from an exercise, as they think of the next exercise and begin to plan it before they finish the preceding one; it is as important to return in good form as to take the exercise in good form. An indifferent tone should be used only in the commands for resting and dismissal; it is of course absurd to command, "*Class—rest!*" with the same vim and enthusiasm that is used in commanding a jump or run.

PROJECTS FOR PRACTICE

1. Practice speaking with suitable tone, inflection, and pause, the direct and return commands for the following exercises, using the numbers as the executive part:

- (a) Arm raising forward, (b) arm flinging sideward, (c) arm raising forward upward, (d) arm bending, (e) head bending backward, (f) trunk bending downward, (g) heel raising, (h) knee bending.
- 2. Repeat the same, using the verb as the executive word.
- 3. In what kind of exercises is it necessary to use the word "right" or "left" in the command? If "right" is used, should "left" be given later? Why? Are there exceptions?

Speak the commands for the following, using first the numbers and then the verbs as executive words:

- (a) Leg raising sideward, (b) foot placing forward, (c) trunk bending sideward, (d) fallout outward, (e) knee raising, (f) trunk twisting, (g) hands on hips, (h) stride sideward, (i) trunk incline forward, (j) deep breathing.
- 4. In commands for combined exercises, like "*Hips firm and right knee upward—Raise!*" what about the pause that is usually made after the word "Hips"? Why not make it here? How should it be spoken?

Speak the commands for the following combinations:

- (a) Hands on neck and stride sideward, (b) raise arms forward and knee bending, (c) arm bending and leg raising sideward, (d) arm flinging forward upward and fallout forward, (e) hands on hips and stride forward, (f) arm flinging sideward and stride backward, (g) arm raising forward and heel raising, (h) arm bending and trunk twisting.

Note: In wording these commands we may either use the numbers as executive words and leave the explanation in the imperative form, or move the verb of the second command to the end as an executive, as illustrated in 4 above.

- 5. Continue the practice in demonstration and commands.

In the recitation, those seated may be asked to make written criticism of the work, covering the following points:

- (a) The standing position of the teacher.
- (b) Accuracy of demonstration.
- (c) Judgment as to number of times position is shown and from what points of view.
- (d) Clearness of language.
- (e) Economy of time.

COMPLEX EXERCISES

We have dealt thus far with the simplest exercises, but many exercises are composed of two or more parts which are taken either in quick succession or all at once, and involve more details. Such exercises require something more than a demonstration to fit the class to take them correctly, and the most effective plan of teaching is to develop such exercises in several stages, leading up to an understanding of them that enables the class to execute them at a single command.

The general plan, to be varied in special cases, is as follows:

1. Demonstrate the complete exercise, if it can be done. This gives pupils a general idea of what they have to learn.
2. Command the separate parts in their proper order, using the usual form of commands and correcting all mistakes.
3. Command these parts in the same order, using the numbers, *One! Two! Three!* etc., as the commands of execution and omitting the explanatory command. This tests the knowledge of the class as to the order of the parts and gives further practice and opportunity for criticism. All mistakes should be seen and corrected here.
4. Give command for entire movement, adding to the explanatory parts the words "*with counting*," the class counting to aid in keeping the same rhythm.
5. Counting should be omitted as soon as pupils can keep the rhythm without it. The amount of time to be spent in any one of these stages of development depends of course on the difficulty of the exercise and the age and advancement of the class, but it rarely is of advantage to omit one stage entirely.

PROJECTS FOR PRACTICE

1. Apply the above plan to the teaching of a number of the more complex gymnastic exercises.
2. Make the best possible preparation for handling the entire class in facing and marching exercises.

Note: In the class hour each student should have opportunity to show ability to conduct the class, with criticism and suggestions on the following points:

- (a) Promptness of execution and accuracy of rhythm and unison. The whole class should start and stop each movement exactly together. If they do not do so, is it the fault of the teacher in giving commands or of the pupils?
- (b) Accuracy of movement. How secured? How and when are faults to be criticized?
- (c) Management, so as to avoid confusion and meet emergencies. What possible sources of trouble? How avoid each?

OBSERVING AND CORRECTING FAULTS

It rarely happens that one is able to perform a wholly new exercise accurately the first time, no matter how clear a demonstration of it has been made. The process by which one learns a new exercise is called coördination. It involves control of the muscles in new combinations and a training of the muscular sense—the sense by which we get direct knowledge of the position of our joints and of the force with which our muscles are contracting. We try to make the new movement several times, and gradually gain in accuracy by recognizing our faults and correcting them.

Success in perfecting the coördination depends largely on how promptly and clearly the pupil recognizes his mistakes as he tries to take the exercise. Since he can see his own positions to only a slight extent, he will learn much faster if some one can tell or show him how far his attempts are successful and to what extent they are faulty. This stage of teaching, therefore, requires of the teacher two things:

1. Observation of the class as the exercise is taken, with the object of discovering where the movement is accurate and where it is inaccurate. This is probably the most difficult of all the duties of the teacher of gymnastics. Before he can do this successfully he must not only have a very clear concept of what the exercise should be, and such a mastery of the commands that he can give undivided attention to the work of the pupils, but his eye must be trained to observe exercises and detect mistakes instantly.

The custom of leading the class in the exercises, which is habitually followed by some teachers of gymnastics, is inevitably fatal

to the best results in this stage of the teaching because it takes the attention of both the teacher and the pupils away from what all should be watching, viz.: the work of the *pupils*. The mental picture should be made so clear and vivid by a good demonstration that this continuous leading is unnecessary.

Some exercises can best be observed from the front, some from the rear, and some from the side. This makes it necessary for the teacher to move about among the pupils as the work goes on. The common custom of sitting before a class causes teachers to feel that they should always stand or sit in front of a class to give commands, but this is not necessary. It is well to have the class face in all four directions during the lesson, since it prevents pupils from forming the habit of imitating those in front of them, and also places all near the teacher a part of the time when new exercises are shown.

2. Criticism of the work of the pupils.

The object here is to give the pupils the benefit of what the teacher has learned in observing their work. The attitude of the teacher in making these criticisms should be one of encouragement and enthusiastic helpfulness. The word "criticism" does not mean fault finding, but the giving of a true estimate of the degree of success the pupils have reached in their attempts to do the work. A class can be kept wide awake and interested by keeping them informed all of the time of the progress they are making. Faults of course must be noticed, but as the work improves the class should be told of it and especially good work commended.

The first faults to be corrected are naturally those that are general; they should be mentioned in a general remark to the whole class. Individual mistakes require help for each pupil, which can usually be given by word but sometimes best by direct assistance with the hand.

PROJECTS FOR PRACTICE

This project cannot be prepared by study of the book alone. Students should study together in groups of two or three, so that one can act as teacher and all gain the experience received by trying to teach.

1. With one or two pupils to take the positions, command several gymnastic positions and observe and criticize the work. Observe especially the following points:

- (a) Fundamental position. This is the most important of all exercises taken for posture and every teacher should be particular at all times to demand and secure accurate performance of it. Have in mind where the teacher should stand to observe this position and make it a point to be there and to see if the common faults are present. Train the eye to see at a glance whether the line of the body as viewed from the side is straight and inclined forward at the proper angle from the ankles.
- (b) Response to commands. Is it prompt? Is the position taken in exact unison by the class? If not, is the fault in the manner of command or due to carelessness of pupils? Find out and apply the proper remedy.
- (c) Form, or accuracy of movement. Who made mistakes? What are the faults? Was the fundamental position sacrificed in taking the position? This is the most common and serious of faults and must be detected by the teacher at once.
- (d) Return to fundamental position after the exercise. Was it prompt and accurate? If not, was the command at fault, or a bad habit of the pupil? Make the command perfect and see.

In place of the usual recitation the class should be divided into squads of 4-6 and the ability of the students to command and criticize tested, with opportunity for suggestion and criticism of the methods they use. Those not teaching nor acting as gymnastic class should write criticisms of what they see on the following points:

- (a) Standing position of the teacher.
- (b) Demonstration. Accurate? Clear?
- (c) Commands. Correctly worded? Interest shown in the tone of command? Inflections? Pause suitable?
- (d) Faults corrected and faults not corrected.

- (e) Manner of criticism. Prompt? Definite? Clear?
- (f) The teacher's ideal. High grade of work required?
Too easily satisfied? Too hard to suit?

2. Prepare to teach a few elementary dumb-bell exercises.

Note: Passing from Swedish to German gymnastics, the following points in teaching must be observed:

It is necessary in German gymnastics for the teacher to formulate many explanatory commands, using good language, instead of merely memorizing commands from a text.

The exercises are not so absolutely fixed as to manner of execution as in Swedish work. The teacher must teach a definite exercise, but he may use his judgment as to the exact manner in which it is to be done.

The exercises are taken in rhythm almost without exception in light apparatus work, and with musical accompaniment when possible.

NOTATION OF GYMNASTIC EXERCISES

Teachers need to use written symbols to represent the exercises. It saves time and space to abbreviate the names of the positions. In abbreviating these names the following principles are followed:

1. The common custom of closing each abbreviation with a period is not observed.
2. As far as possible without causing any confusion, the initial letter of an exercise or a direction is the abbreviation for the full name; for example, F for feet, s for sideward, u for upward, etc.
3. Capitals are used for designating the parts of the body, and small letters in other cases. This distinguishes F, feet, from f, forward; B, the back, from b, backward, etc.
4. Where exercises have the same initial, we secure clearness by using enough other letters. Examples, std for stride, str for stretch, ch for change, etc.
5. It is not necessary to write down things that are always to be done, such as fundamental position, return commands, and right and left when the exercise needs to be taken on each side.

Notice how the above principles are employed in the abbreviations for the exercises we have used. Gain familiarity with them

so as to be able to give the command for any one of them when the abbreviation is written.

COMBINATIONS OF GYMNASTIC MOVEMENTS

Gymnastic movements are often combined with the object of saving time and of varying the difficulty of the movements of their effect upon the body. An illustration of this has been given under commands. The following are ways in which they are combined:

1. One gymnastic position used as a preliminary position for taking another, as when trunk bending is done from a stride position or when arm circumduction is practiced while trunk is bent. In writing such combinations of exercises it is customary to write the preliminary position first, follow this by a comma, and then write the movement to be taken in that position; the above-mentioned exercises would be written: *std s, Tr bd f. Tr bd b, A cmd.* A period is used to separate independent exercises, and is not used excepting at the close of an exercise that is entirely independent of the one that follows it.

2. Two or more movements, executed at the same time, as when we take neck firm and stride position at once, or arm flinging upward while jumping. In writing combinations of this kind the abbreviations for the movements to be combined are written in succession with no marks of punctuation between them; the exercises mentioned above are written: *Nf std s. jp u A fl u.*

In speaking the commands for combinations of this kind it is necessary to avoid any pause until the whole explanatory command is given, and then to make a pause much longer than usual before giving the signal for action. The reason is apparent. The commands for the two exercises just written are: *Neck firm and right foot sideward—Place! Hands and foot—Replace! Jump upward and fling arms forward upward—Start!*

3. Two or more movements taken in succession, usually in even rhythm; as when facings are followed by marching steps, or arm bending by arm stretching. Here the commands are spoken just as when the movements are to be taken together, and the same care has to be taken in speaking them. In writing such exercises, a dash is used to separate the different movements; for example *r fc—l step f. A bd—A str f. H rse—K bd—K str—H sk.*

4. Exercises repeated in regular rhythm, after the manner in which the steps are repeated in marching and running. Exercises repeated in this way are said to be done "In rhythm"; they are printed in italics in the book and are underscored if in handwriting, as: *A rse s. A bd. A str u.*

The command for rhythm work is the usual explanatory command for the exercise, followed by the phrase, *In rhythm—Start!* When the exercise gives rise to a sound in even rhythm, as in marching, this sound helps the class to keep in unison; when such a sound is lacking, the class should be commanded to count in unison with the movements, to aid in keeping together, unless musical accompaniment is provided. Command, *In rhythm with counting—Start!*

The use of punctuation marks to indicate the way exercises are to be taken may be summarized as follows:

PERIOD: Indicates the close of an exercise. Exercises separated by a period are independent of each other; the first is completed and fundamental position is taken before taking the second.

COMMA: Separates a preliminary position from the movement to be taken in that position; the exercise before the comma is commanded first, and the second is commanded while the first is being held.

DASH: Movements separated by a dash are commanded together and taken in succession in even rhythm.

MAKING GYMNASTIC PROGRAMS FOR THE CLASS PERIOD

There are in use in this country at least three definite types of gymnastic program: the Swedish, the German, and the New York City programs. All teachers who use formal gymnastics should understand these plans of arranging exercises for the class period; they will then be in a position to use the plan they consider best or to modify it to suit special conditions.

THE SWEDISH DAY'S ORDER

The Swedish Day's Order is a standard form of program followed by teachers of Swedish gymnastics. The exercises are

divided into eleven groups, each of which is given to accomplish a certain definite purpose. The names of these groups are shown in the following chart:

The Day's Order	Preparatory	{	I. Order Movements
			II. Leg Movements
	Body of Lesson	{	III. Arch Flexions
			IV. Heave Movements
			V. Balance Movements
			VI. Back Exercises
			VII. Abdominal Exercises
			VIII. Lateral Trunk Movements
	Quieting	{	IX. The Climax; Running, Jumping and Games
			X. Slow Leg Movements
			XI. Breathing Exercises

The Day's Order is intended for use in the schoolroom, where the pupils go directly from various school occupations to gymnastics, and go back at once to their other tasks when the gymnastic period is finished; this explains some of its peculiar features. The first two groups merely prepare the pupils for the main body of the lesson, and the last two prepare them to resume their mental work to best advantage.

THE GERMAN TYPE OF PROGRAM

While not believing in the use of a plan as complex and unvarying as the Swedish, the teachers of German gymnastics are inclined to follow a plan that is about as follows, the program occupying about an hour:

1. Marching. For boys this is of a military character, lasting about eight minutes, and ending with a run; for girls it is more often figure marching and dancing, lasting fifteen minutes.

2. Exercises with light apparatus, boys twelve minutes, girls fifteen minutes.

3. Exercises on heavy apparatus with at least one change of apparatus, and including some form of jumping; boys thirty minutes, girls twenty minutes.

4. A game, lasting ten minutes.

The Germans make more distinction than the Swedes between exercises for boys and for girls; they agree with the Swedes in

giving games only a subordinate place in a gymnastic period, instead of devoting whole periods to games, as do the English and Americans.

The plan outlined above can be used in school gymnastics only in exceptional cases, where there is a fully-equipped gymnasium and full-hour periods for gymnastics.

THE NEW YORK CITY PROGRAM

When Dr. C. W. Crampton was supervisor of physical training in New York City, his published programs for the use of teachers showed a new plan in five parts:

1. Introductory
2. Corrective
3. Educational
4. Hygienic
5. Recreative

Part 1 is devoted to getting ready in various ways for the practice; 2 stresses erect posture; 3 consists of exercises meant especially to train coördination; 4 includes several vigorous movements repeated in rhythm, with a view to getting a large amount of muscular work, and 5 is made up of dances, games and sports.

PROJECTS FOR PRACTICE

1. Classify all the movements without apparatus that have been used in the preceding projects into the proper parts of the Swedish Day's Order. Have the classified lists ready to read in class, as a basis for discussion.
2. Be ready to teach programs of Swedish type as assigned by the teacher.
3. Be ready to teach in like manner bell and wand programs.
4. Plan how to make groupings of the class that will best improve the appearance, for exhibition purposes.
5. Prepare a program of the New York City type; be ready to teach it to a class that will be provided.

REFERENCES

POSSE: Kinesiology of Educational Gymnastics

SKARSTROM: Kinesiology

STECHE: Handbook of Information, Philadelphia Schools

CHAPTER V

CONDUCTING IMITATIVE AND DRAMATIC ACTIVITIES

College students who are preparing to become teachers of physical education are so far removed from their own childhood days that they have entirely forgotten how they felt as children, what were their leading interests and how life appeared to them in their early years; moreover, they have a strong liking for the more complex and dignified activities suited to college age along with an indifference, bordering on contempt, for the types of activity suited to young children. Unless they have chanced to be intimately associated with young children they are apt to have no idea of the choice of suitable activities for the lower grades; men are inclined to start the six-year-olds on the elements of football and baseball, while the women would like to teach them the steps and the etiquette of the ballroom. So great is the spirit of imitation that the infants, if shown the movements, would attempt with great glee to bat and to drop-kick and to do the minuet and the Charleston, but they would soon tire of these things and prefer to act like a clown, a sea-gull or a street-car, if something suggested it. They believe in brownies and fairies, in witches and hobgoblins, and why not? Telephones, airplanes and choo-choo cars are hobgoblins, are they not? The strange actions of people and things must be explained in some way; brothers and sisters and teachers are interesting people in a way, but Santa Claus and the Sand Man are much more so.

The pupils of the lower elementary grades are interested to some extent in competition, but not to the same degree as the older ones; they are in the "monkey age," and seem to copy, almost automatically, everything they see others do. We usually speak of this as imitation, yet it is not done so much from a conscious desire to imitate as from an instinct to express what they see; they lack the fluent use of words that comes later and so employ motions of the whole body to illustrate their ideas.

To make use of these instinctive tendencies of the young children, teachers have worked out at least four rather distinct methods of conducting physical activity for the lower grades: (1) simple or direct imitation; (2) a form of dramatic imitation known as "story plays"; (3) dramatic games, and (4) rhythmic plays, the latter often incorrectly called "singing games."

Direct Imitation. In this method of conducting the activities the pupils are simply told to watch and follow the leader; the teacher performs the movements that have been chosen and the children imitate as best they can. The movements should be planned, in this and the other methods, to fulfill the requirements of good physical activity: they must be varied, using practically all the body; they must tend to give good erect posture; they should be vigorous and involve some running; they should work up to a climax and gradually down again to mild activity. There are many ways to maintain the interest of the pupils: choosing pupils who do especially well to act as leaders a part of the time; having the movements taken while marching, skipping or running for part of the time; giving the movements a dramatic feature, as in "I saw"; giving it a competitive feature, as in "Do this, do that," and "Ducks fly."

Direct imitation is best suited to short periods of activity given when the children have been quiet for some time and are anxious to give vent to their pent-up energy; other methods are better when interest is to be sustained for a longer period.

Story Plays. A story play is a program of gymnastic movements that has been arranged to secure the purposes of physical education and then completely dramatized, so as to gain the interest of young children. The value it has for physical education depends on how well the exercises are selected and arranged; the interest and consequently the performance of it by the children depends on how well it is dramatized; unless it is well dramatized it might better be given by direct imitation, or even by formal commands. Story plays are most often arranged on the plan of a Swedish Day's Order, but another plan of arrangement may be just as good; the details of selecting and arranging the programs should follow the general statement made in the paragraph on direct imitation.

To illustrate how a group of gymnastic movements is drama-

tized into a story play, let us suppose a teacher has planned a simple Swedish program as follows:

1. Arm raising and stretching up to full height.
2. Warming up by a fast walk or slow run.
3. Balancing and poising.
4. Bending and twisting the trunk.
5. Physical climax, including running and jumping.
6. Marching rather slowly.
7. Deep breathing.

If the children have seen a circus recently, this program might be dramatized like this:

1. Show how high the elephant is.
2. Show how we started walking to the circus, then got in a hurry and ran the last part of the way.
3. Show how the riders stand up on the horses' backs while they gallop.
4. Show how the lions and tigers walk up and down in their cages.
5. Show how the horses trot and then gallop round the ring.
6. Show how we walked home after the show was over, talking of what we had seen.
7. Show the home folks how the man blows the big horn.

If the time of frost is here and the nutting season at hand, the same program may be dramatized in this way:

1. Looking up and pointing to the nuts high up in the tree.
2. Going to the woods.
3. Showing how the squirrels balance on a little branch.
4. Picking up nuts and putting them in the basket.
5. Showing how the squirrels run and play in the leaves.
6. Walking home with the baskets full of nuts.
7. Imitating the whistling of the wind in the trees.

Selecting Themes for Story Plays. The story with which the program is clothed must be familiar to the pupils and must be one in which they are thoroughly interested. The safest way for the one who has the selection of these themes is to inquire of the regular grade teacher what the children are studying that interests them most: it will usually be appropriate to the season of the year and related to local history or industries; sometimes it is related to national history and government. To the children of the city, the grocer, the ice man, the fireman, the traffic officer and the newsboy are interesting personages who will be dramatized with enthusiasm; if they have a chance to see what goes on in the country or have

studied about it, the harvesting of hay, grain, apples, sugar beets and corn make good stories; excursions to the woods, the seashore, the playground, or on a river steamer furnish good themes, also snow play, raking and burning leaves, and many other occurrences that attract the children's attention from time to time. The course of study and the heroes of literature about whom the children read are very large sources of attractive stories. Much depends on the ingenuity of the teacher or rather upon her willingness to study the details and work them out fully.

Conducting Story Plays. The story play should be conducted in an informal way and with a manner calculated to inspire enthusiastic action. It is not intended in such play that each child shall do exactly the same thing, as in gymnastics; joyous and vigorous activity is what we want, and so criticism is out of place. It is of little importance, too, whether the movements made are in exact unison, for since they are not to be criticized with a view to correcting mistakes, there is no special need of demanding that all keep together. The suggestion for the various actions may be put in the form of a question, as "How do the trees bend when the wind blows?" or "What kind of noise does the wind make as it blows through the trees?" It is well to have several ways of making the suggestion to the class; it may be "Show us how the horse gallops"; or "Be an ice man and saw a piece of ice for us," or "Let us go down to the barn." Story plays should be mostly new and novel ones, not repeated except by request of the pupils. It is easy to overdo the story play; it should never be made the major part of any week's activity and scarcely of any day's activity.

Mimetic Exercises. This is a form of imitative activity so similar to the story play that it seems best to refer to it here, although it is not used with the children of the lower grades. The name has been applied to the practice by whole classes, in unison, of athletic movements with the purpose of teaching the correct form of these movements to large numbers at once. Shot put, javelin throw, starts for sprinting, certain styles of throwing a baseball, football or basket ball, and certain styles of holding hands and body for catching, are examples of movements that adapt themselves readily to this form of teaching. No apparatus is used. The teacher, or some skilled athlete secured by the teacher, stands before the class, demonstrates the movement, and then the class

imitates him in the practice of it many times in rapid succession. The most successful leaders add a dramatic feature, saying that "so-and-so," a well-known athlete and preferably a champion, "does it this way"; he then asks them to imagine themselves this champion as they practice the exercise, and to do it with his spirit and his confidence. Mimetic exercises are used extensively in teaching the elements of athletic sports to junior and senior high school boys; it is just as suitable for similar classes of girls.

Dramatic Games. Young children enjoy competition to a certain extent but they enjoy it better if it is flavored with make-believe. The best elementary games for these youngsters have this dramatic setting, as will be seen from the following list of familiar games. Simple tag is much more attractive if it is understood that it is a witch or a policeman that is chasing them; a very dull goal game is made very exciting by making believe they are squirrels hunting hollow trees to be safe from the fox.

Goal Games

Puss in the corner
Squirrels in trees
Run for your supper
Mail man
Run, sheep, run
Red lion

Tag Games

Brownies and fairies
Fox and squirrel
Cat and rat
The king's land
12 o'clock at night
Birds

Song Plays. These are taken up in the chapter on rhythmic activities.

PROJECTS FOR PRACTICE

1. Arrange a gymnastic program of nine exercises and plan a dramatization to make a story play of it; make it a seasonal story suited to the fall term.
2. Same as 1, suited to winter.
3. Same as 1, suited to spring.
4. Plan a story play, using a story of knighthood.
5. Plan a story play, using a story of soldiers, camps and warfare.
6. Plan a story play, using a story of Indian life.
7. Plan a story play, using a story of games or sports of older people.

58 THE CONDUCT OF PHYSICAL ACTIVITIES

8. Organize and conduct activities on the plan of "I Saw."
9. Organize and conduct activities on the plan of "Ducks fly."
10. Organize and conduct activities on the plan of "Do this, do that."
11. Organize and conduct a game of "squirrels in trees."
12. Organize and conduct a game of "fox and squirrel."
13. Organize and conduct a game of "brownies and fairies."
14. Organize and conduct a game of "king's land."
15. Organize and conduct a game of "birds."

REFERENCES

Bulletin of Iowa State Teachers College—Physical Education
Michigan State Bulletin on Physical Training
PARSONS: Plays and Games
STONEROAD: Gymnastic Stories

CHAPTER VI

CONDUCTING RHYTHMIC ACTIVITIES

In teaching all rhythmic activities it is very important that proper interest be aroused and that a desire to learn the dance be created. This may be done by correlating the work in different departments. For example, in the literature class the teacher could teach folk lore; in the science room the geography of the country could be developed; in the music department the songs learned and in the gymnasium the folk dance taught.

Before presenting a rhythm the new step should be developed as a separate problem from the dance. Next, because of the climatic and industrial influence on the folk dancing of the world, the dancers should be made acquainted with the conditions of the country from which the dance comes. In the more simple form of rhythmic work, such as free rhythms and Mother Goose rhymes, little development of steps and atmosphere is necessary. With beginners, or where a difficult rhythm is to be used, it is a good plan to have the group stamp or clap time with the music. The folk dance proper should be presented slowly enough for the class to execute it properly and fast enough to keep the interest at its height. With inexperienced teachers this point is of very great importance as the tendency is to try to teach too much at one time rather than learn less and know that well. To avoid a dance becoming monotonous, part may be taught each day.

Before considering rhythms, it is well to become acquainted with fundamental movements and some of the more common steps.

RHYTHMIC MOVEMENTS

1. WALKING (Music $4/4$ time)
 - a. Carefree—one step each quarter note—most natural type.
 - b. Triumphant—accent on every beat with a pompous attitude.
 - c. Processional—slow even accent with religious attitude.
2. RUNNING (Music $4/4$ time)
 - a. Carefree—one step each eighth note—most natural type.

60 THE CONDUCT OF PHYSICAL ACTIVITIES

- b. Staccato—quick, short, tiptoe light run.
 - c. Vigorous—strong movement of legs and arms—larger steps.
3. GALLOP (Music 6/8 time)
4. LEAPING (Music—any of uneven time). Leaping is uneven rhythm; *i.e.*, a long and short time leap alternating.
 - a. Prancing—short steps—staccato time—knees sharply flexed.
 - b. Cake walk—Upper trunk leaning backward—legs carried in front—comedy effect.
 - c. Warrior—Large leaps—height—arms swinging vigorously.
 - d. Stealthy—Crouching—weight on bottom of toes.
5. SKIPPING (Music 2/4 or 6/8 with 2/4 characteristics).
 Skipping consists of alternate hopping to uneven 2/4 time or 6/8 time of 2/4 characteristics, the hop coming on the 8th note, the change on the dotted quarter.
 - a. Careless—Body relaxed—knees relaxed—ball of foot takes the weight—medium steps.
 - b. Bright—On bottom of toes only—knees slightly active—very short steps.
 - c. Vigorous—Strong flexions of knees—strong lift of body from floor—fists clenched and head emphasizing feet.
- I. SCHOTTISCHE (Music 4/4 time)
 - a. Step forward R, close step L to R
 Step forward R, hop R and raise L foot forward.
 - b. To develop:
 1. Clap rhythm, accenting 4th beat.
 2. Run forward 3 steps and hop on 4th beat.
 3. Step forward R, close L ft., step forward R, hop R and swing L.
- II. WALTZ (Music 3/4 time)
 - a. Step, step, close.
 - b. To develop.
 1. Clap or stamp rhythm, accenting 1st beat.
 2. Any movement that takes three counts; *i.e.*, one long—two short steps.
 leap, leap, run
 slide, hop, hop
 step, step, close
 3. Executed forward, sideward, and finish in a square; *i.e.*,
 Music:—"Swinging in a Swing."
- III. POLKA (Music 2/4 or 6/8 time)
 - a. Simple or Schottische Polka.
 1. Step together step.
 - a. To develop:—Two step.
 1. Gallop R foot leading, 8 steps.
 Gallop L foot leading, 8 steps.
 Gallop R foot leading, 4 steps.
 Gallop L foot leading, 4 steps.
 Gallop R foot leading, 2 steps.
 Gallop L foot leading, 2 steps.
 Gallop R foot leading, 1 step, hop on the 1st count.

Gallop L foot leading, 1 step, hop on the 1st count.

b. Also sliding in place of gallop.

b. Complex polka.

1. Hop, slide, cut, leap (*sauté, glissé, coupé, jeté*).

a. To develop.

1. Step, step, step.

2. Repeat getting off floor.

3. Add hop and leap at beginning and end making hop, slide, cut, leap.

IV. MAZURKA (Music $3/4$ time) (1.)

a. Slide, cut, hop.

b. To develop.

1. Slide, run, run.

2. Slide, leap, leap.

3. Slide, leap, leap in place.

4. Slide, leap, hop.

MAZURKA (Music $3/4$ time) (2.)

a. Slide, cut, leap.

b. Same as Mazurka—change feet with leap in place instead of hop.

Variety for change of direction.

V. TWO-STEP

a. Step, close, step.

b. To develop . . . same as waltz.

VI. STEP, SWING

a. Step sideward or forward right, hop right, swing left forward.

Repeat with the left.

b. May be taken without hop.

SLIDE HOP

a. Slide forward right, hop right foot extended left backward.

Repeat with the left.

These steps should be developed as a separate rhythmic problem before teaching any dance in which they are to be used.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

1. Choice Rhythms for Youthful Dancers
Caroline Crawford and Elizabeth Fogg. A. S. Barnes & Co., N. Y.
2. Piano Pieces the Whole World Plays, Vol. II
D. Appleton & Co., N. Y.
3. Masterpieces of Piano Music
Albert E. Weir. Musical Pub. Co., N. Y.
4. Manuscript for Rhythms of the Fundamental Steps
Arranged for Miss Margaret H'Doubler. May be obtained from Mrs. Mary A. Trumpf, 138 Breeze Terrace, Madison, Wisconsin

Rhythmic activities may be divided in five different groups:

I. Free Rhythms.

II. Mother Goose or Nursery Rhymes.

III. Simple Singing.

IV. Simple Folk.

V. Complex Folk.

I. *Free Rhythms:*

Free rhythms are presented to little children just learning to combine steps with music. This may be developed through imitation or dramatization as the vigor and joy in which the small children take part in free rhythms is greatly enhanced by appeal to their imaginative, imitative and dramatic instincts. In imitation all the children will perform the same action while in dramatization each will follow his own impulse which is aroused by the music.

Steps in Teaching:

1. Play music.
2. Children beat rhythm.
3. Combine rhythm with characteristic movement (Under close direction of leader).

Example: (Imitative)

1. FALLING LEAVES:

Action:—Children imitate leaves as they blow and whirl around in the autumn breeze.

Falling Leaves

Marion Martin

The musical score for "Falling Leaves" is written for piano in 6/8 time. It consists of two systems of four measures each. The key signature has two flats (B-flat major). The first system begins with a piano (*p*) dynamic. The second system begins with a mezzo-forte (*mf*) dynamic, followed by a trill (*tr.*) in the first measure, a pianissimo (*pp*) dynamic in the second measure, and a ritardando (*ritard*) marking in the third measure. The music is characterized by flowing eighth and sixteenth notes, with various slurs and trills.

2. ELEPHANTS ON PARADE (Dramatic)

Action:—Children swing trunks made of arms and take long, slow, heavy steps to appear as an elephant.

Elephants on Parade

Slowly and ponderously

Marion Martin

II. *Mother Goose or Nursery Rhymes:*

Mother Goose rhymes are the most simple of any form of folk dancing. They differ from free rhythms in the fact that the children all do the same thing at the same time and in a definite form. They should follow immediately after free rhythms as the dramatic and imitative instincts are the most outstanding characteristics of these rhythms.

Steps in Teaching:

1. Play music.
2. Have children repeat rhyme.
3. Have children sing rhyme with music.
4. Present dance.

DIDDLE, DIDDLE DUMPLING.

Did - dle, did - dle dump - ling, my son John Went to bed with his stock - ings on ;

One shoe off and one shoe on, Did - dle, did - dle dump - ling, my son John.

DIDDLE, DIDDLE, DUMPLING

Formation: In circle around room.

"Diddle Diddle, Dumpling, my Son John"—Hands on hips and turn around in place to right starting with left foot.

"Went to Bed"—Clap hands in front of chest and extend elbows sidewise. Rest head on right elbow.

"With his stockings on"—Slap right ankle with right hand, then left ankle with left hand.

"One Shoe off"—Kick right foot forward.

"One Shoe on"—Tap left foot on floor.

"Diddle, Diddle, Dumpling, my son John."—Same as in beginning. Repeat.

RIDE A COCK-HORSE TO BANBURY CROSS.

mf Allegretto con spirito. *cres.*

Ride a Cock-horse to Ban-bu-ry Cross, To see a fine la-dy up-on a white horse,

mf *cres.*

Rings on her fin-gers, and bells on her-toes, She shall have mu-sic wher-e-ver she goes.

RIDE A COCK-HORSE

Formation: Circle around room. In couples, girls behind boys with hands on boys' shoulders.

1. "Ride a cock-horse to Banbury Cross
To see a fine lady ride on a white horse."
Eight gallop steps forward.
2. "Rings on her fingers."
Face partners, raise hands high over head and wiggle fingers; at same time jump twice on both feet in place.
3. "And bells on her toes."
Tap right toe forward twice.
4. "She shall have music wherever she goes."
Join hands with partner, turn around in place with four running steps.

III. Simple Singing Rhythms:

Simple Singing rhythms may well follow Mother Goose rhymes. This group is perhaps the most easily taught without music and is of great value to teachers who find themselves without a piano. This by no means need lessen the interest or spirit of the dance,

66 THE CONDUCT OF PHYSICAL ACTIVITIES

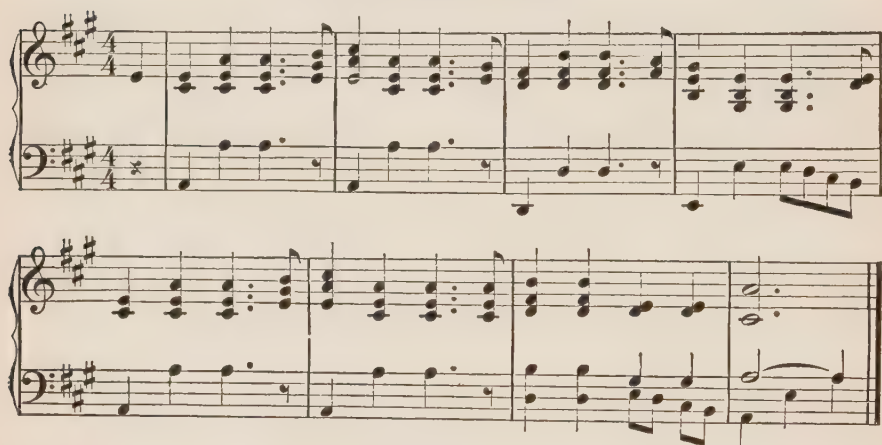
Care should be taken to teach words and steps by stanzas to preserve the children's interest in the dance.

Steps for Teaching:

1. Play music (where possible).
2. Teach words of first stanza.
3. Combine music and words.
4. Add steps with (3).
5. Teach words of second stanza and proceed as before.
6. Repeat combining entire dance.

Examples:

THE MUFFIN MAN



From Crampton and Wollaston's *THE SONG PLAY BOOK*. Copyright, 1917, by A. S. Barnes and Company, publishers.

THE MUFFIN MAN

O do you know the muffin man,
The muffin man, the muffin man,
O do you know the muffin man,
That lives in Drury Lane?

O yes, I know the muffin man,
The muffin man, the muffin man,
O yes, I know the muffin man,
That lives in Drury Lane.

Two of us know the muffin man,
The muffin man, the muffin man,
Two of us know the muffin man,
Who lives in Drury Lane.

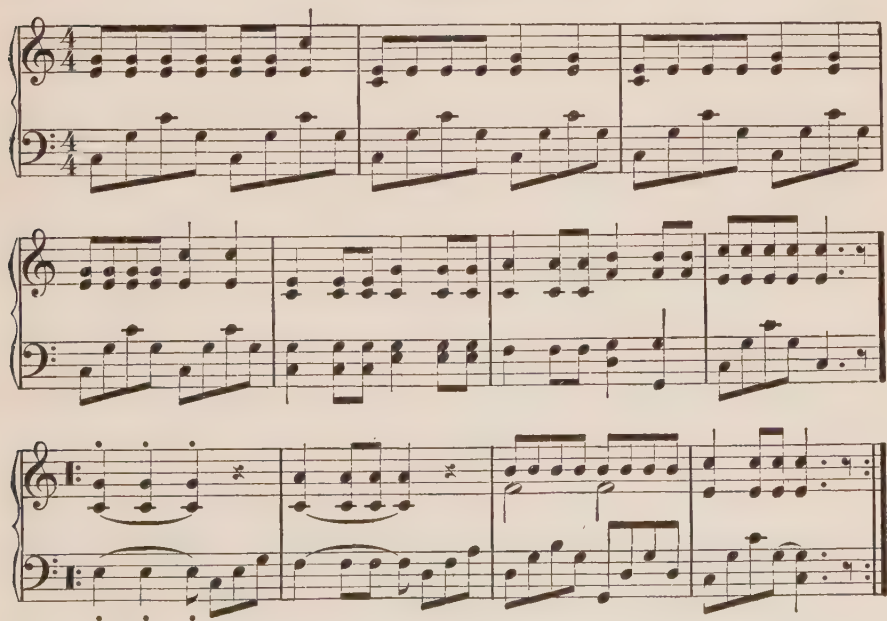
Four of us know the muffin man,
Eight of us know the muffin man,
All of us know the muffin man.

Formation: Single circle.

Four or five children are selected to take places in the circle. As the first verse is sung, each skips in time with the music to some child in the circle and taking him by the hand, leads him to center of circle, singing, "Oh, yes, I know the muffin man," etc. The little groups of two then join hands and dance around in a circle singing, "Two of us know the muffin man, etc. The play continues, each child choosing another as in the beginning, until all have joined some group.

24

CARROUSEL



From Crampton and Wollaston's *THE SONG PLAY BOOK*. Copyright, 1917, by A. S. Barnes and Company, publishers.

CARROUSEL

Pretty maiden, sweet and gay,
 Carrousel is running,
 It will run till evening:
 Little ones a nickel, big ones a dime.
 Hurry up! Get a mate!
 Or you'll surely be too late!
 Ha, ha, ha! Happy are we,
 Anderson, and Peterson, and Lündstrom, and me!

This represents the "Merry-go-round," or "Flying Horses." The children form a double circle, standing in couples, both facing toward center of circle. The front ones of all couples join hands in a circle; the back ones place their hands on their partner's shoulders.

The music consists of two parts. The first part contains seven measures; the second part, eight.

In fitting the steps to the music, each measure should be counted thus: "One, two, three, four."

A

During A, players move toward the left with a slow sliding step, as follows:

(Measure 1.) Make a long slide to the left with the left foot (one), close the right foot to the left (two). Repeat (three, four).

(Measures 2-7.) Continue through the seven measures of A, but, during the sixth and seventh measures, make stamps instead of slides.

During the sixth and seventh measures, the time is accelerated slightly.

B

(Measures 1-4.) Still moving to the left, with the time slightly accelerated, as in the two preceding measures, execute the same step as described in the first measure of A, but in double

time, that is, making four slides to each measure instead of two. [Fig. 1.]

(Measures 5-8.) Repeat, sliding to the right (repetition of B.)

At the end of B, partners immediately change places, those who were behind now standing in front with hands joined, the others behind with hands on partner's shoulders.

The whole exercise is then repeated.

The words are sung by the children as they play. The four stamps in the sixth and seventh measures of A are made on the words, "up, mate, surely, late."

In the chorus, "Ha ha ha!" should be shouted heartily with heads thrown back.

A

Pretty maiden, sweet and gay,
 Carrousel is running,
 It will run till evening:
 Little ones a nickel, big ones a dime.
 Hurry up! get a mate!
 Or you'll surely be too late!

B

Ha ha ha! Happy are we,
 Anderson, and Peterson, and Lündstrom, and me!
 Ha ha ha! Happy are we,
 Anderson, and Peterson, and Lündstrom, and me!

During the first part of "Carrousel" the merry-go-round is supposed to be just starting, and moves slowly; in the second part it is in full swing, and the fun is at its height.

IV. *Simple Folk Dance:*

In the simple folk dance the teacher may correlate her work with other teachers in the building and make the dance a real value as well as a pleasure to the child. The true spirit of a folk dance can only be expressed by a group which knows something of the

country in which the dance originated, the life of the people of that country and the actual way in which they do the dance. Simple folk dance differs from the simple singing rhythms in the fact that it is done to music without words.

Steps in Teaching:

1. Create atmosphere for the dance.
2. Play music.
3. Teach first step and combine with music.
4. Teach second step and combine with music.
5. Proceed in this manner through entire dance repeating steps already learned with each new step.

Example 1: Industrial.

1. REAP THE FLAX.

Formation: Five in line, as many lines as desired, all facing front, hands on hips.

A

- | | |
|----------------|---|
| Measure 1. | All bend forward downward to left. |
| Measure 2. | Reap the Flax by rising. |
| Measure 3. | Throw it to the right side. |
| Measure 4. | Back in starting position, hands on hips. |
| Measures 5-8. | Repeat. |
| Measures 9-16. | All turn left. The leaders' hands on hips, the others put their hands on shoulders of those standing before, and run to the right in a circle back to places, bending trunk deeply to the side on the first count of each measure, alternately R and L. |

B

- | | |
|----------------|---|
| Measure 1. | All bend forward downward to R and rise. |
| Measure 2. | Put the flax around the hackle. |
| Measure 3. | Draw it from the hackle. |
| Measure 4. | Position. |
| Measures 5-8. | Repeat. |
| Measures 9-16. | Repeat work done on those measures in Fig. A. |

REAP THE FLAX.

Measures 1-4 of the piece. The music is in 3/4 time, key of B-flat major. The right hand features a melody with eighth and sixteenth notes, while the left hand provides a harmonic accompaniment with chords and single notes.

Measures 5-8. The melody continues with similar rhythmic patterns. Measure 8 ends with a double bar line and repeat dots.

Measures 9-12. Measures 9 and 10 are marked with an accent (^). The melody and accompaniment continue. Measure 12 ends with a double bar line and repeat dots.

Measures 13-16. Measures 13 and 14 are marked with an accent (^). Measure 15 has a flat (b) under the bass line. Measure 16 ends with a double bar line and repeat dots. The piece concludes with the marking *D.C.*

C

- Measures 1-4. Numbers 1 and 4 take a short step turning to numbers 2 and 3, and taking R hands thumb grasp, form a spinning wheel. The leaders (numbers 5) face the wheel and with the L foot tread the wheel. The wheel with running steps moves to L.
- Measures 5-8. Repeat going around to L.
- Measures 9-16. Repeat as in Fig. A.

D

- Measures 1-8. Numbers 1, 2, 3, 4 take R hands, thumb grasp, and the leaders run as shuttles under their arms and around and around each one of the four.
- Measures 9-16. Same as in Fig. A.

E

- Measures 1-4. The lines move up to the L Side of their leaders and form a large ring, dancing to L.
- Measures 5-8. Dance to R.
- Measures 9-16. The leader of the first line puts hands on hips and the others all put hands on shoulders of one in front forming one line. Music is repeated while the line traverses two sides of a large square, the diagonal and two other sides, when the line is broken again into the original fives and the dance is repeated if desired.

Example 2: Climatic.

1. NORWEGIAN MOUNTAIN MARCH.

In fitting the steps to the music, each measure should be counted thus: One, two, three.

The exercise is performed in groups of three, all moving forward and around the room from right to left.

NORWEGIAN MOUNTAIN MARCH.

The musical score is written for piano in 3/4 time with a key signature of two sharps (F# and C#). It consists of six systems, each with a treble and bass staff joined by a brace. The melody is in the treble staff, and the accompaniment is in the bass staff. The piece is divided into 24 measures, numbered 1 through 24. Measures 13, 16, and 24 end with a double bar line and repeat signs. The final measure, 24, is marked 'D.C.' (Da Capo). The notation includes eighth and sixteenth notes, rests, and chords in the bass staff.

1 2 3 4

5 6 7 8

9 10 11 12

13 14 15 16

17 18 19 20

21 22 23 24 D.C.

From Crampton's THE FOLK DANCE BOOK. Copyright, 1909, by A. S. Barnes and Company, publishers.

In each group of three, Number One stands in front with a handkerchief or scarf in either hand; Number Two and Number Three stand side by side directly behind her, Number Two on the left, Number Three on the right, with inside hands joined and outside hand of each grasping the end of the nearest handkerchief, thus forming a triangle.

A

Measures 1-16. Beginning with the right foot, all run forward, making three steps each measure, and stamping on the first count of each measure. When stamp is made with right foot, sway the head and shoulders to the right; and sway them to the left when stamp is made with left foot.

B

- Measure 1. Number One bending forward runs backward, three steps, with a stamp on first one, and passes under the joined hands of Numbers Two and Three (one, two, three).
- Measure 2. Number One, after passing under, continues running three more steps in place (one, two, three). (During measures 1 and 2, Numbers Two and Three run in place.)
- Measures 3-4. Number Two, with six short running steps, passes across in front of Number One, and turns inward once around in place under Number One's right arm.
- Measures 5-6. Number Three, with six short running steps, turns inward once around in place under Number One's right arm.
- Measures 7-8. Number One, with six short running steps, turns once around to the right under her own right arm.

This should bring the three back to their original position. In executing this figure, each should continue running in place while the others execute their part.

Measures 9-16. Repeat the same, Number One omitting the stamp on first count.

This represents two mountain-climbers with their guide. Number One, being the guide, should keep well in advance of Numbers Two and Three in A, and should appear to be drawing them after her.

(Note: If desired, the following words may be sung while dancing):

1. We climb up the mountains
We climb up the mountains
We climb up the mountains
Of Norway so grand.

We follow our leader
We follow our leader
We follow our leader
With scarfs in each hand.

2. The pathways are winding
The pathways are winding
The pathways are winding
But we do not fear.

We help one another
We help one another
We help one another
And our guide is near.

V. *Complex Folk Dance:*

Complex dances should be taught to advanced classes only, as the value of the dance is lost when it is so difficult it becomes a bore. The value in folk dancing lies in the rhythm and in the joy that the pupils get in the execution of the dance. In general, a more difficult dance should be developed during several lessons in order that the interest and spirit may be kept active and not become monotonous.

Steps in Teaching:

1. Introduce local color of the dance.
2. Play music.
3. Teach step with music.
4. Repeat first step and develop second.
5. Continue through dance repeating familiar steps with each new one.
6. Repeat entire dance often to gain desired familiarity and for the fun in the doing.

Examples:

THE IRISH LILT

(Individual)

Pupils standing in regular class formation.

Exercise 1. (1) Hop l and rse r leg f—(2) hop l and sw r leg s—(3) spring to r foot and rse l leg b—(4) hop r and hold l leg in same position—(5 to 12) repeat the preceding r and then l—(13) spring into stride position sidewise (14) spring with feet together—(15) hop l and swing r forward—(16) hop l and bend r knee at right angles, knee raised high.

Movements 13 to 16 make what is called the *Break*, and this is the finish for each exercise of the lilt.

Exercise 2. (1) Hop l and tap r toe f—(2) hop l and strike r heel in place of toe—(3) hop l and tap r toe behind l heel—(4) hop l and rse r leg f—(5 to 12) repeat r and then l—(13 to 16) *break*.

Exercise 3. (1) hop l and rse r leg s—(2) hop l and sw r leg f—(3) hop l and quickly flex and extend r knee—(4) repeat (3)—(5 to 12) repeat r and then l—(13 to 16) *break*.

Exercise 4. (1) Hop l and tap r toe s, toeing in—(2) hop l and strike r heel in place of toe—(3) hop l and tap r toe behind l heel—(4) hop l and rse r leg s—(5 to 12), repeat r and then l—(13 to 16) *break*.

Exercise 5. (1) Hop l and tap r toe f—(2) hop l and rse r leg f—(3) spring on r, crossing it over in front of l and rse l leg b—(4) hop r and rse l leg f—(5 to 12) repeat r and then l—(13 to 16) *break*.

Exercise 6. (1) Hop l and strike r heel f—(2) change to

THE WASHERWOMAN

The musical score is written for piano in 6/8 time, consisting of two systems of staves. The first system includes a piano (*p*) dynamic marking, and the second system includes a forte (*f*) dynamic marking. The music is composed of eighth and sixteenth notes, with some rests and repeat signs. The key signature is one sharp (F#).

same pos with l heel f—(13 to 14) change r and l alternately as in the preceding—(15 and 16) stamp l, r, and l in the time of two counts.

Tarantella

(Description on preceding page)

I-IV-VII

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13

II-V-VIII

14 15 16 17 18 19

III-VI-IX

20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31 32 33 34 35 36 37 38 39 40

Vol. IV

From Hinman's GYMNASIC AND FOLK DANCING BOOKS, Volume IV. Copyright, 1916, by Mary Wood Hinman.

THE TARANTELLA

A

Partners, facing forward with inside hands joined.

(a) Step right forward and hop, raising left forward (bending body to left during hop). Repeat beginning with left.

(b) Four high running steps forward.

All this should be danced four times and on last two running steps face in toward partner.

B

Facing partner.

(a) Hop left touching right toe to side, hop touching right toe in front of left heel. Repeat.

(b) Step right and hop raising left forward; step left and hop raising right, making a complete circle to right in place. Clap hands together on each second count of figure B. Clap in front at waist height during (a) and at height of head for (b). Repeat.

C

Steps are the same as in figure A only class joins right hands with partner and circles in place. Twice with right hands joined and twice swinging to left with left hands joined. (See page 78 for music.)

PROJECTS FOR PRACTICE

- I. a. Prepare to teach a free rhythm showing imitative activities and one showing dramatic activities.
- b. Prepare an original free rhythm showing by your choice of music the characteristic step to be used.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

1. The Rhythms of Childhood
Crawford and Fogg. (Barnes)
2. Dramatic Games and Dances (for Little Children)
Caroline Crawford. (Barnes)
3. Music for the Child World
Hofer. 3 volumes. (Summy)

- II. a. Select a Mother Goose rhyme and demonstrate through your method of teaching it that these rhymes are connected very closely to free rhythms.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

1. Mother Goose Songs
Crowninshield. (Milton Bradley Co.)
2. The Most Popular Mother Goose Songs
(Hinds, Hayden and Eldridge)
3. Physical Education for Primary Grades
W. A. Ocker. (Barnes)
4. Dramatic Dances for Small Children
Mary Severance Shafter. (Barnes)

- III. a. Be able to present to the class a simple singing rhythm.
b. Prepare a different dance and develop without the aid of a piano.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

1. Folk Dances and Singing Games
Burchenal. (G. Schirmer)
2. Old English and American Games for School and Playground
Florence W. Brown and Neva L. Boyd. (Saul Brothers)
3. Social Games and Group Dances
Elson and Trilling. (Lippincott)

IV. Simple Folk:

- a. 1. Choose a dance.
2. Make an outline showing correlation of this dance with literature, science, music and art departments.

3. Be ready to give an introduction for the dance in which the class will gain some idea of the background of it.
- b. Present dance to class.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

1. Folk Dances and Singing Games
Burchenal. (G. Schirmer)
2. Folk Dances from Old Homelands
Burchenal. (G. Schirmer)
3. The Folk Dance Book
Crampton. (Barnes)
4. The Second Folk Dance Book
Crampton. (Barnes)
5. Folk Dances of Czechoslovakia
Geary. (Barnes)

V. Complex Folk

- a. Select a dance, pick out new step to be taught, develop step in class as a separate problem.
- b. Make a division in your dance designating how much to be taught in one lesson. Give reasons for division.
- c. Teach the dance letting the class play several minutes between each division to show lapse of time between days.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

1. Folk Dances from Old Homelands
Burchenal. (G. Schirmer)
2. Folk Dances and Singing Games
Burchenal. (G. Schirmer)
3. Dances of the People
Burchenal. (G. Schirmer)
4. National Dances of Ireland
Burchenal. (Barnes)
5. Gymnastic and Folk Dancing, Vols. II and IV
Hinman. (Barnes)

CHAPTER VII

THE SQUAD AND LEADER SYSTEM

The squad and leader plan of class organization was first used in the conduct of physical activities by the German Turners under Jahn, almost two centuries ago. It has been widely used, ever since that time, in conducting practice upon heavy apparatus, but it is only within very recent years that its use has been extended to the conduct of all kinds of physical activities and with pupils of all ages. It is now being employed in the teaching of many school subjects outside of the field of physical education, as a means of applying the "Project Method" to large classes.

The outstanding feature of the squad and leader system is the organization of large classes into smaller groups, each of which has a pupil acting as leader. The number and size of the groups depends on the size of the class, the amount of available space and equipment and the kind of activity to be practiced. When the activities require a large amount of personal supervision and instruction, as in bar work and tumbling, for example, the leaders must be well skilled in the exercises, calling for a special class of leaders meeting at extra hours for added training; in the practice of less formal activities, such as elementary games and story plays, special training of the leaders is less essential.

Advantages of the Plan. (1) The size of the groups can be made to suit the activity. Many of the best games and activities, as every play leader knows from experience, are carried on successfully only when the group contains the right number of players; this applies not only in the case of highly organized games like basket ball and tennis, where the number is fixed, but in less degree to tag and goal games, song plays, folk dances, and the practice of track and field sports and ability tests. In fact, many of our very best old traditional games and sports are little used in our classes in physical education because the numbers are too large to suit the activity. The present custom, which has been almost

universal in physical education, of conducting our large classes as a single unit, has driven us to the expedient of devising new games for large numbers; but games for large numbers are not in the highest degree satisfactory, except with skilled athletes; the rules are too complicated for the many, and either the few best players do all the work or the game lacks interest. Games like volley ball, for example, when played with large numbers, fail utterly to develop habits of activity in the pupils who are naturally least active, because they can stand idly by and let the more active ones make the plays; but when the number on a team is reduced to six or seven, each one must play his part.

(2) Activities practiced by the small squads are well suited for play out of school hours by small neighborhood groups, on back yards, streets, alleys or sidewalks. The formal gymnastics and dances and the games for large numbers are almost never practiced out of school hours, for the groups are too small and the space is too limited and irregular. This is one reason why the practice of physical activities in school gymnasias has so little effect on the play habits of the children, and a change to the squad system should make a marked improvement in this respect.

(3) The squad system enables the teacher to use a much wider variety of physical activities, which helps in maintaining interest. Every gymnasium is supplied with certain equipment that can employ a few at a time but is never practical for the whole class, and the squad system makes it possible to use all such apparatus and give the pupils the excellent training the various pieces are designed to provide. Traveling rings, running track, jump standards, mats, balance beams, horizontal and parallel bars are familiar examples. When there are only a few pieces of such apparatus, the squads not employed in that way can engage in games, dances, tests, etc., and take their turn at the equipment as the program provides.

One type of activity that has never been used extensively in class work is the practice of the elements of the major games, such as the coach uses in training his team. In basket ball there are foul shooting, goal throwing from various positions and in combination with passes and dribbles; in baseball there is pitching, catching, batting and fielding grounders and flies, throwing to bases, running and sliding. The squad plan of organization makes

it possible to keep fifty or more pupils busy in a gymnasium or on a playground in the practice of these interesting activities, learning elements of skill and strategy they are anxious to acquire and making it more likely that they will engage in these games rather than passive amusements later in life.

(4) The squad system makes it possible to give boys and girls separate activities suited to their tastes and abilities when the program and the space available does not permit of separate classes. In the same way it is possible to give separate groups of pupils who are physically larger or smaller than the main part of the class special activities suited to them; this is of especial importance in ungraded or rural schools, where both sexes and various ages are included in the same class.

(5) The squad system affords the best opportunity for practice and training in leadership and sportsmanship. The intimate and informal social contact within the groups, under supervision, makes for good fellowship, lessening the timidity of some pupils and restraining the boldness and aggressiveness of others. Modest pupils with exceptional ability, assigned to duty as leaders, learn to assert themselves, while others who have been inclined to take the lead by pure self-assertion learn that they must gain actual ability if they wish to maintain their former standing.

Objections Answered. It was formerly held by many educators that play is instinctive and cannot be taught, while on the other hand informal activity fails to give discipline. To show the fallacy of such views it may be said that eating and drinking are also instinctive; the child inherits a tendency to play just as he inherits a tendency to eat, but he does not inherit table manners nor the ability to choose a wholesome and well-balanced diet, neither does he inherit the rules of games and sports nor the principles of sportsmanship; all these things must be learned by imitation and instruction. When it comes to discipline, there is little need in life for the type of discipline developed by standing in line and responding to formal commands, but much need of the self-restraint and spirit of fair play developed in competition in the squad and between squads.

Organizing Squads. Pupils of the elementary grades usually enter the gymnasium and pass to the playground in single or double file; when squads are to be formed just for the day, it can be done

by simply counting off from the front of the column enough for a squad, directing them quickly and informally to a place or a leader, and then repeating the process until the whole class is organized. It may be necessary in order to make the squads of equal size, to count the entire class, but this is easily and quickly done as they arrive.

It must be kept in mind that the organization is not a part of the work of the class, but merely a preliminary to it; all unnecessary delay in completing the organization is so much time wasted; the plan must therefore be worked out in detail beforehand, and not left to the spur of the moment. Since the number and size of squads depends in part on space and equipment, the organization can best be planned either in the gymnasium during a vacant period or with the aid of a floor plan of it.

Pupils of higher grades are apt to enter the gymnasium singly or in small groups from the locker rooms; teachers who handle the entire class as a unit are apt to waste valuable time here waiting for all to arrive before starting the activity of the hour. Pupils are stimulated to dress and come to class quickly by starting them at favorite activities as soon as they arrive.

Usually it is of much advantage to have squads organized more permanently and then it should be done more carefully. It is a help in maintaining interest to have the squads compete with one another, occasionally at least. In this case they must be of as nearly equal strength as possible; the teacher can arrange the squads with this in view or the leaders, appointed previously, can be allowed to choose from the class in rotation. To make the division fair, the order of choice must be reversed each round, that is, if in the first round of choices leader A chooses first, followed by B, C, D and E, then in the next round leader E should have first choice, followed by D, C, B, and A. All this can be done by reference to the class list and the list of squads posted in the gymnasium, so that no time for practice is lost in making the organization.

Leadership. Every squad should have a leader, who must be responsible to the teacher for certain features of the work of the squad. He may lead or direct the group in practicing a list of exercises given him by the teacher, he may be held responsible for reporting absences from the group, he may be an instructor or a

judge of work done, or he may keep the scores or points made by members of his squad. To be a good leader one must have the ability to make decisions and to assume responsibility, he should have special knowledge or skill in certain activities, and he should be popular with his fellows.

Every child should have a chance to act as a leader and show what he can do in that capacity; they all like to do it, and it is only by trying that they can tell how successful they may become. Unless the teacher appoints the leaders there will be self-appointed leaders, and then the teacher loses control. Sometimes those who lack the self-assertion to take the lead among their fellows prove to be the very best leaders when assigned to it and feel that sense of responsibility that goes with the appointment. A leader of a squad really has new problems to study and solve, as well as to gain a special proficiency in the activities.

Dividing the Space. There may be plenty of room for practice, but usually space is scant and places for all the groups to practice should be chosen with a view to economizing the space that is available and giving each group equal opportunity to do what they have to do. Occasionally all the groups will be practicing the same thing and using no equipment, which makes a fair division of space a very simple problem; when several squads take part in different activities, some or all of them using equipment that has a fixed place, it must be planned carefully and then watched to see if a possible change should be made in the arrangement. There should be a regular place for mats, used in jumping, targets used for throws, balance beams and all movable apparatus. When some activity proves less popular than others, it is well to study the situation and find if it is not because location and space were not well chosen.

The Program. It is a good plan for the teacher to plan the work of the squads in full detail for at least a week in advance and either post the complete program in the gymnasium or give each leader a copy of it. This program will include the activities to be used, the division of the floor, the order of movement of the squads from one activity to the next and the time that the squads practice before shifting to another place. The selection of activities will not be difficult, for the program of work for the year will tell what ground is to be covered. Week after week these

programs will follow the outline for the year, working up to a climax at certain times in the form of a contest, demonstration or test.

Conducting the Practice. As soon as the organization is completed and the program well under way, the teacher has considerable time to watch the general progress of the class, help individuals and leaders as they need it and look for chances to improve the system. After a short time at the opening of the hour given to free play, the whistle is blown as a signal for squads to take up their first line of activity, according to the posted program. As soon as the proper time has elapsed, the whistle is blown again as a signal for squads to shift, and this is repeated at the interval provided in the program, as the hour proceeds. A special signal by whistle may call all squads to a general assembly of the class. Usually the leaders will stay with the place and equipment when the squad shifts, as they are in that way able to give a better service in instruction, officiating or conducting the work. In some instances it may be better for the leaders to remain with their squads; this is desirable when there is competition and when the leaders are especially strong, so that each of them is able to lead well in all the activities.

PROJECTS FOR PRACTICE

Plan in full detail a squad and leader system suited to a 45-minute period in a well-equipped gymnasium that is 50 by 80 feet, with a running track in the gallery; include number of squads, list of activities and time to be devoted to each between shifts, for the following cases:

1. A class of 48 third grade children practicing informal play.
2. A class of 48 fifth grade boys, eight events of the boys' badge test.
3. A class of 48 sixth grade girls, eight events of the girls' badge test.
4. A class of 48 junior high girls, informal play.
5. A class of 56 junior high boys, four track and four field sports.

88 THE CONDUCT OF PHYSICAL ACTIVITIES

6. A class of 56 junior high boys, horse, mats, track, 4 elements basket ball.
7. A class of 56 junior high girls, elements of basket ball, 8 events.
8. A class of 48 senior high girls, Detroit pentathlon, scores kept. Full hour.
9. A class of 48 senior high boys, Detroit decathlon, scores kept. Full hour.
10. A class of 48 senior high boys, elements of baseball on field. Full hour.
11. A class of 48 senior high girls, elements of baseball on field. Full hour.

CHAPTER VIII

ORGANIZING AND CONDUCTING CONTESTS AND MEETS

A contest is a form of competition in which two or more competitors do the same thing under the same conditions to find which ones excel in it. Contests differ from games in having all the details of what is to be done understood beforehand, leaving no room for surprise, strategy or deception, whereas in games the players are expected to make up by cunning and team play, if possible, whatever they lack in physical ability. The object of a race is to find who are the best runners, and any attempt to win by beating the gun or interfering with an opponent is evidence of poor sportsmanship. The contest is the simplest and oldest form of athletic competition, and the youth of all nations and races have decided championships by it since the earliest times of human history.

Events. The physical activities in which athletes compete are carefully specified and defined in the established rules of competition and are known as the "Events." They usually include:

1. Races, including running, riding and swimming, in which the contestants try to cover a definitely marked course in a shorter time than their competitors;

2. Field events, such as jumping and throwing, where it is a matter of distance;

3. Gymnastic events, such as bar work, tumbling, dancing, diving and club swinging, in which skill, shown by grace and excellence of form, is of most importance, and

4. Marksmanship, either in throwing or in the use of bow and arrows, gun, pistol, etc.

In formal contests, where honors or trophies are to be won, there should be officials in charge, including judges for all contests and a starter and timers for the races.

The Starter. All races require a starter, who has for his duty to place the contestants at the starting line and give them the signal to start. In order to facilitate drawing for positions he should

be provided with numbered cards or tags, as many as there are contestants in any race. He calls the contestants together, has each one draw a number, and then allows them choice of positions in the order of the numbers drawn. When there are more contestants in any race than the track or pool will accommodate, he divides them into two or more "heats," or groups to compete separately; in doing this he should place in separate heats, as far as it is possible, any contestants who are known to be among the best and also all the representatives of each institution or team. Another duty of the starter is to discover and penalize any who start before the signal, as provided in the rules.

The Judges. In races it is necessary to have as many judges as there are winners to be picked; five judges if five prizes or honors are to be awarded, two judges if only two. One of the judges should always be recognized by the others as the head judge, and he should assign to the others the particular winner they are to pick; first, second, and so on. Each judge should station himself as nearly in line with the finishing mark as possible so as to avoid possible errors of judgment, and must be sure not to lose sight of his man until he has fully and surely identified him; whenever a race is close enough to permit any possibility of dispute, the judges should confer and decide any uncertain points before any judge announces his decision to others.

There should be three timers at all important races; they should start their watches at the flash rather than at the sound of the gun; they should stand at the finish and should stop their watches as the first runner crosses the line; they should compare watches before announcing the time and unless two watches agree, the slower time should be taken.

There should be at least two judges for broad jumps and throwing events; one to watch the contestants for fouls and one to mark the point to which distance is to be measured; these two can, if necessary, also measure distances and record results, but faster progress can be made when there are two others to measure and one to score. One judge can handle high jumps and pole vaulting, but he needs an assistant to replace the bar and sometimes two in order to avoid delay.

Judging Gymnastic Events. In the judging of the third class

of events mentioned on the preceding page, including dancing, club swinging, bar work, tumbling and diving, there are two separate items to be considered: the difficulty of the exercise and the excellence of the performance. When a judge is confronted with the necessity of passing judgment on both of these items at once, in a rapid succession of contestants and events, it is practically impossible for him to render fair decisions in all cases. To obviate this difficulty in part, a plan has been worked out for diving, which is as follows:

1. Three judges are stationed near the spring board but in positions such that they will see the performance from different angles, and are directed to pass judgment separately on excellence of performance only, marking on a scale of ten; a failure scores zero, a poor dive three, a fair dive six, an excellent dive eight, and a perfect dive ten.

Each judge is supplied with a set of large cards numbered up to ten; as soon as a dive is completed the first and second judges indicate their decisions by holding up a card so that all can see; the head judge combines these ratings with his own and holds up a card which gives the final decision. All this occupies but a moment and competitors and spectators are informed as to the grade of performance of each dive as it is made.

2. The relative difficulty of different dives has been decided by a national committee of experts and stated in the following table: the plain front and back and the front and back jack-knife dives are rated as having a difficulty of 1; the relative difficulty of other well-known dives is given in the table, the final score being found by multiplying the score given by the judges by the number in the table. In actual practice the second table below gives the results of this multiplication, so that on receiving the decision of the judges the scorer can by reference to the two tables write down at once the score earned by a contestant.

OFFICIAL DIVING TABLE

Official List of Dives:

Dive	Standing Points	Running Points
1. Forward somersault	1.5	1.5
2. Forward $1\frac{1}{2}$ somersault	1.9	1.8
3. Forward somersault with $\frac{1}{2}$ twist	1.7	1.7
4. Forward $1\frac{1}{2}$ somersault with $\frac{1}{2}$ twist	2.2	2.2

5. Forward double somersault.....		2.2
6. Backward somersault.....	1.5	
7. Backward $1\frac{1}{2}$ somersault.....	2.2	
8. Backward double somersault.....	2.0	
9. Flying Dutchman (Forward spring back dive) ..	1.9	2.0
10. Flying Dutchman somersault.....	1.7	1.8
11. Flying Dutchman $\frac{1}{2}$ twist.....	1.7	1.7
12. Twisting back $1\frac{1}{2}$ somersault.....	2.1	
13. Forward spring $\frac{1}{2}$ twist back dive.....	1.5	1.6
14. Forward spring full twist with forward dive....	1.8	1.8
15. Backward spring and forward dive ($\frac{1}{2}$ twist)...	1.4	
16. Backward spring and backward dive (full twist)	1.9	
17. Backward spring forward somersault.....	1.9	
18. Backward spring and $1\frac{1}{2}$ forward somersault..	2.0	
19. Forward jack-knife $\frac{1}{2}$ twist.....	1.8	1.9
20. Forward jack-knife with full twist.....	2.2	2.2
21. Backward jack-knife $\frac{1}{2}$ twist.....	1.9	
22. Handstand dive.....	1.2	
23. Handspring dive with somersault.....	1.6	1.6

TABLE FOR SCORING DIFFICULTY OF DIVES

By FRANK J. SULLIVAN, Coach Princeton University

First column—*Judge's possible estimate* of value of a given dive on basis of points or half points, ten points being given for a perfect dive. Succeeding columns contain *final results* of dives after judges' estimate has been multiplied by the proper *factor for difficulty*. The various possible factors for difficulty appear in bold face type at top of each column of final results.

	1.2	1.4	1.5	1.6	1.7	1.8	1.9	2.0	2.1	2.2
1.	1.2	1.4	1.5	1.6	1.7	1.8	1.9	2.0	2.1	2.2
1.5	1.8	2.1	2.25	2.4	2.55	2.7	2.85	3.	3.15	3.3
2.	2.4	2.8	3.0	3.2	3.4	3.6	3.8	4.	4.2	4.4
2.5	3.0	3.5	3.75	4.0	4.25	4.5	4.75	5.	5.25	5.5
3.	3.6	4.2	4.5	4.8	5.1	5.4	5.7	6.	6.3	6.6
3.5	4.2	4.9	5.25	5.6	5.95	6.3	6.65	7.	7.35	7.7
4.	4.8	5.6	6.0	6.4	6.8	7.2	7.6	8.	8.4	8.8
4.5	5.4	6.3	6.75	7.2	7.65	8.1	8.55	9.	9.45	9.9
5.	6.0	7.0	7.5	8.0	8.5	9.0	9.5	10.	10.5	11.0
5.5	6.6	7.7	8.25	8.8	9.35	9.9	10.45	11.	11.55	12.1
6.	7.2	8.4	9.0	9.6	10.2	10.8	11.4	12.	12.6	13.2
6.5	7.8	9.1	9.75	10.4	11.05	11.7	12.35	13.	13.65	14.3
7.	8.4	9.8	10.5	11.2	11.9	12.6	13.3	14.	14.7	15.4
7.5	9.0	10.5	11.25	12.0	12.75	13.5	14.25	15.	15.75	16.5
8.	9.6	11.2	12.0	12.8	13.6	14.4	15.2	16.	16.8	17.6
8.5	10.2	11.9	12.75	13.6	14.45	15.3	16.15	17.	17.85	18.7
9.	10.8	12.6	13.5	14.4	15.3	16.2	17.1	18.	18.9	19.8
9.5	11.4	13.3	14.25	15.2	16.15	17.1	18.05	19.	19.95	20.9
10.	12.	14.	15.	16.	17.	18.	19.	20.	21.	22.

SCORE SHEET FOR DIVING

DETROIT

CLEVELAND

TOLEDO

SMITH				BROWN				JONES			
Required dives			Score	Required dives			Score	Required dives			Score
Front			8	Front			9	Front			7
Back			6	Back			8	Back			9
Optional dives				Optional dives				Optional dives			
*Num-ber	Diffi-culty	Excel-lence		Num-ber	Diffi-culty	Excel-lence		Num-ber	Diffi-culty	Excel-lence	
2	1.9	10	19	13	2	9	18	19	1.9	9	17.1
6	1.5	8	12	8	1.6	8	12.8	10	1.8	7	12.6
Total			45	Total			47.8	Total			45.7
Rank			6	Rank			3	Rank			4
DUNN				JAMES				ALGER			
Required dives			Score	Required dives			Score	Required dives			Score
Front			10	Front			8.5	Front			9
Back			9	Back			9.5	Back			7.5
Optional dives				Optional dives				Optional dives			
Num-ber	Diffi-culty	Excel-lence		Num-ber	Diffi-culty	Excel-lence		Num-ber	Diffi-culty	Excel-lence	
12	2.1	9	12.6	22	1.2	10	12	4	2.2	8	17.6
14	1.8	10	18	17	1.9	8	15.2	9	2	9	18
Total			49.6	Total			45.2	Total			52.1
Rank			2	Rank			5	Rank			1

* The number given is the number of the dive as listed in the table of dives in the swimming guide.

Athletic Meets. A meet is an organized meeting of contestants for the purpose of having competition in several events in the same program. Meets are also very old, the school and college meets of to-day corresponding to the ancient "Field Days" among the clans and tribes, while state and national meets are much like the Olympic and Isthmian Games of ancient Greece. The conduct of a meet requires at least four additional officials, besides those in direct charge of the contests: a referee, to have general charge of the meet and decide all questions in dispute; an official scorer, to secure and assemble all the scores taken in the several events; a clerk of the course, to keep account of the progress of the meet

and notify all contestants when to appear for their events, and an announcer, who should announce the scores with a megaphone. The announcer is able to help the clerk in notifying contestants who may be scattered about the field and stands and to help the referee keep spectators from interfering with the events and from preventing others from seeing the contests. The referee also appoints one or more "Inspectors," to observe runners on parts of the track beyond the view of the judges, in case of possible violation of rules.

In case of competitions in dancing, calisthenics and other class work in unison, the teachers in charge should either agree upon a uniform program to be performed by all contesting classes, or upon a rating of relative degrees of difficulty of the programs to be given; in club swinging, tumbling and other exercises, those in charge must prepare a rating table like the one given for diving in order to secure fair decisions and avoid disputes. Unfortunately, no such rating tables have ever been made and accepted by a national committee or other competent body.

The List of Events. Athletic meets are most often held for college men, and have been used longest by colleges and athletic clubs of men, so that the list of events for men is most fully standardized of any and most generally accepted. The following illustrative program shows two dashes, two hurdle races, five runs of a quarter mile and more, and six field events. The 16-lb. shot is used:

The program recommended by the Western Conference of Colleges.

Track Events

1. 120 high hurdles, 2:00 o'clock trial heats	11. 2 mile run	4:20
2. 100 yard dash, trial heats	12. 220 yd. low hurdles, finals	4:40
3. 1 mile run	13. Relay	5:00
4. 440 yard run		
5. 100 yard dash, final		
6. 120 yard high hurdles, final		
7. 220 yard dash, trial heats		
8. 220 yard low hurdle trial heats		
9. Half-mile run		
10. 220 yard dash, final		

Field Events

1. Pole vault	1:45
2. Shot put	1:45
3. High jump	
4. Discus throw	
5. Broad jump	
6. Javelin throw	

The same program is often used for high school boys, omitting the 440, the mile and the two mile runs and reducing the weight of the shot to 12 lb. For junior high school boys, only the 100 yard dash and the high and broad jumps of the above list are suitable, and the same is true of all girls and women. Evidently, if contests and meets are to be used to stimulate the interest of girls and younger boys, other events must be chosen, and progress in this line has been slow, mainly because it takes time to test out new events, find which are most satisfactory, and standardize rules for conducting them. But substantial progress has been made and now teachers can find many events with published rules from which they can choose a list suitable for children of the upper elementary grades.

Events for Boys and Girls. The pamphlet on Badge Tests published by the Playground and Recreation Association of America includes the following events, well described and with rules well developed:

12 events for boys: 50, 60, 100, and 220 yard dashes, standing and running broad jumps, running high jump, baseball throw for distance and for accuracy, 8 lb. shot, chinning the bar, and rope climbing.

10 events for girls: 50 yard dash, potato race, all-up race, run and catch, balancing, basket ball distance throw, 12-inch baseball throw for accuracy, serving tennis and volley ball, basket ball goal throw.

Reilly's "New Rational Athletics for Boys and Girls" suggests the following in addition:

For boys: 40 and 80 yard dashes, hop-step-leap, baseball pitching, deep breathing, dip, and posture.

For girls: putting and driving in golf, baseball pitching, chest expansion and posture.

The American Physical Education Association publishes the report of a national committee recommending an extensive list of events including:

For boys: about 250 additional events—54 tests in balancing, 8 broad jumps, high head jump, high kick, fence vault, several activities from the games of football, soccer, baseball, basket ball, tennis, and exercises on bars and mats.

For girls: about 150 additional events—54 tests in balancing,

high head jump, hop-step-jump, pull-up and kick for height, and activities from the games of soccer, hockey, tennis and baseball.

Standard Swimming Events. The National Collegiate Athletic Association recommends the following program for swimming meets:

1. Relay, 4 on a side, each to go 2 lengths of the pool.
2. Fancy diving.
3. Free style.
4. Breast stroke.
5. 220 yard swim.
6. Plunge for distance.
7. Back stroke.
8. 100 yard swim.

Programs for Meets. Several weeks or months before a meet is to take place the directors or teachers concerned should hold a conference and agree upon the program, and this should include not only the list of events but the order in which they are to be run off and the time for each, as given in the program recommended by the Western College Conference and shown on a preceding page.

When a meet is held between colleges or high schools there is a "track team" in each institution practicing regularly in preparation for it; in case of meets between girls or younger boys, the preparation must be made in the classes in physical education. When the meet is planned in time and events are chosen with this in view, the class work can be planned to cover the events of the meet, and the anticipation of the meet will stimulate interest in the class work; in fact, this is the best reason for conducting a meet. The greatest problem in teaching is how to secure enough interest, and a meet will help if it is planned soon enough, kept in mind in the program of the class work, and properly conducted when the time comes. The program of the meet should be posted in a conspicuous place during the period of preparation.

Two additional programs are given here to illustrate the form and details, one of a meet between two groups of college girls and one between the children of thirty-six rural schools.

Tuesday Evening, March 3, 1926, 8 o'clock

The Side Winning Any Event Scores Five Points.

Scores

P K & R H S & I

- RURAL SCHOOL ATHLETIC MEET, FRIDAY, MAY 8

Program

- | | | |
|-------|------|---|
| 9-10 | A.M. | Enrollment of contestants, numbers pinned on. |
| 10 | A.M. | Primary Games Begin and Play on Apparatus. |
| 10 | A.M. | Preliminary Dashes, two heats for each zone. |
| 10:20 | A.M. | Throwing events, all groups. |
| 10:40 | A.M. | Chinning and Balancing events. |
| 11 | A.M. | Jumping events, all groups. |
| 11:30 | A.M. | Run and Catch. |
| 11:40 | A.M. | Dashes, two final heats. |
| 12 | A.M. | Awarding of Ribbons to Girls. |
| 12:10 | A.M. | Awarding of Ribbons to Boys. |

PLAN OF SCORING

Seniors—Ages 12, 13, 14, etc.		Juniors—Ages, 9, 10, 11, etc.	
<i>Boys</i>	<i>Girls</i>	<i>Boys</i>	<i>Girls</i>
Target throw, 40 ft. 2—3—4 hits out of 6 trials	Basket ball throw for distance 25—30—35 ft.	Playground ball distance throw 50—60—70 ft.	Overhead throw with volley ball 15—20—25 ft.
Chinning 6—7—8 times	Balancing 5—10—15 sec. ft. backward	Chinning 4—5—6 times	Balancing 5—10—15 sec. ft. forward
Running high jump 3'6"—3'9"—4'	Standing bd. jump 3'9"—4'—4'3"	Running high jump 3'—3'3"—3'6"	Standing bd. jump 3'3"—3'6"—3'9"
50 yd. dash	Run and catch 23—20—17 sec.	40 yd. dash	Run and catch 28—25—22 sec.

No scores made by primary group.

Juniors and Seniors can win 0, 5, 10, 15 points in an event.

The 2 best in preliminary dashes win 5 points each.

The 3 best in final dashes win 5, 10, 15 points each.

Ribbons are awarded to the 5 in each group winning most points in zone.

RULES

Children of 9 and 10 may play with primary group if they prefer.

Contestants must be ready when their turns are called.

Two trials in distance throws and jumps.

One trial in chinning, balancing, run and catch.

Balance is taken on beam with hands on hips.

Entries. To avoid charges that ineligible players are used, the list of entries is usually required to be in the hands of the secretary ten days or two weeks before the meet, so that it can be sent to all institutions concerned; sometimes each contesting group sends its list of entries to all the others. This gives time for investigation if charges are made. To simplify the conduct of the meet, each group is usually allowed a limited number of entries; it is assumed that each is able to choose its best men and in that way have a fair chance to win. It is further assumed that the contests within the institutions or group will stimulate many to practice in order to secure a place in the list of entries. This assumption is reasonable in colleges using the list of events now in

common use, for with fifteen events and three men permitted to enter, the actual team may include 45 men, and with this number on the team it should be easy to get 100 out for practice.

With girls and smaller boys, where the list of suitable events is smaller, other plans are used to encourage participation in the practice. One way to increase the numbers is to require each team to enter a larger number, and either make the contest a relay or total the scores, as illustrated by the girls' all-college meet mentioned above; with children, who are not ready to specialize, all may be required to take part in all the events, as in case of the rural meet above described.

Preparing the Place. A natatorium usually need little preparation for a swimming meet, since the distances are a certain number of lengths of the pool and do not have to be marked off. A place must be provided for the spectators, with some arrangement that will prevent them from getting in the way of swimmers and officials and also something to protect them against splashing.

When a meet is to be held in a gymnasium, the floor and the mats should be marked for certain events to save time in measuring distances while the meet is in progress. This includes distances for dashes, potato races, relays, etc., and lines and circles for throwing events; some necessary apparatus can be put in place before the meet begins and places marked on the floor for other apparatus, which must be put in best condition and placed where it can be secured without delay. By drawing arcs on the floor for distance throws, all measuring of throws during the meet can sometimes be avoided, and this saves much time. The running track, when there is one, should have the start and finish lines carefully drawn for the different races; places for these marks should be marked permanently at the side of the track to save remeasuring for every meet. Time is very valuable during a meet, and everything that can be done beforehand in preparing the gymnasium for it should be done.

When the races are to be run on a cinder track, the surface of the track must be put in best condition first and then the marks for starts, finishes, lanes and positions of hurdles carefully made. When the course is straight, lines for the starts, finishes and hurdles will all be straight and at right angles to the lanes; when the course is on a curve, the finish line must be drawn first and all the dis-

tances measured from it. This is because the left-hand or inner courses are shorter than the outer ones, and the starting and hurdle lines will have a zigzag form to make the distances equal for all runners; the finish line must be straight in order that the judges can tell who finishes first.

To save time, when meets are to be held, a track should be carefully measured with a steel tape and the distances for the standard events marked permanently at the side of the track. If there is a curb the permanent marks can be made upon it, otherwise firm stakes may be driven at the inner side of the track. In this case they should be either shoulder high, so as to be seen easily, or driven to the level of the ground, to prevent injury to runners.

Places for the field events must be carefully prepared, including the jumping pits and run-ways and the circles and lines for throwing events. Remember that the shot calls for a toe board and broad jumps for a take-off, which should be set firmly in the ground. All necessary apparatus must be in readiness and in good condition for use. Circles can be permanently marked with iron hoops of proper diameter set in the ground.

A great deal of delay and dissatisfaction can be avoided by care in the preparation of the place and by providing all the equipment needed. Officials must not be delayed by lack of guns, watches, measuring tapes, rakes or shovels for smoothing the jumping pits, or cord for use at the finish of the races. The same is true of vaulting poles, cross bars, shot, discus, and hurdles. Judges and contestants may furnish certain pieces of equipment, but the manager of the meet must know that such equipment will be available, in one way or another.

Athletics for Everybody. Teachers are appreciating more and more the advantages of introducing competition into their work while keeping it from reaching such extreme intensity as it sometimes does. Its advantages may as well be gained by younger boys as by college men, by girls as well as by boys, and by all who are in good bodily condition as well as by the few best athletes. Schools in the same town, classes in the same school, and teams in the same class are stimulated by it to greater interest and better effort, as well as institutions many miles apart. Objections to competition are removed by emphasizing championships between groups, classes, schools, leagues and cities, instead of between indi-

viduals; expense is reduced by avoiding long trips and omitting expensive prizes. There is advantage in the promotion of interest and knowledge of good sport in having fifty boys and fifty girls run in a meet instead of a very few, and if the teachers know how to organize and conduct meets, it is easily done. An efficient starter and two or three good judges can conduct a dash every two minutes, handling from one to two hundred runners in an hour, as well as to conduct a single dash, and it requires no more space. There is especial need for all teachers, especially all women teachers of physical education, to learn how to judge athletic contests efficiently and how to perform the duties of the various officials in a meet. They must learn to estimate the time required for all kinds of events and to provide right number of places for conducting high jumps and other events needing more time; also to avoid unnecessary delays. Failure to have a gun loaded and ready for the starter when he needs it or to have some one on hand to replace the bar quickly when knocked off by jumpers may cause an otherwise successful meet to be tiresome. Those in charge of a meet must take time, if it is at all extensive and elaborate, to plan all details and predict and avoid all difficulties and delays.

Classifying Contestants. Dividing boys and girls into classes for competition has the advantage of making the contests more fair to the younger and smaller ones and providing an opportunity for a larger number to take part. The easiest classification to make is based on the school grade; there are some advantages in basing it on age, as they do in the schools of Philadelphia; the Y. M. C. A. and the Playground Associations classify boys according to weight, in the following manner:

Midgets	under	80 pounds
Juniors	under	95 pounds
Intermediates	under	115 pounds
Lightweight seniors.....	under	135 pounds
Heavyweight seniors.....	over	135 pounds

Some schools classify by age and weight, others by age, weight and grade. Height has been used but is being less used as it appears to signify less than the other items.

The classification of contestants is not so often applied to direct competition in meets as to the number of points won by a certain

performance, as shown in scoring tables. In the Philadelphia plan, for example, a jump that is rated "excellent" when made by a boy of ten is rated "poor" for a boy of fourteen; in the tables used by the Y. M. C. A. and those used by the Maryland State Department, a boy weighing 90 pounds is allowed 50 points for a jump that scores 0 for a boy weighing 125 pounds. In the Detroit schools we have an illustration of the use of classifications in the organization of a meet. Boys are divided into 12 classes based on age and weight; in the annual city meet each school is represented by boys of the various classes, who compete only against boys of their own class, which illustrates the highest degree of fairness as to the physique of a boy's competitors, and at the same time brings into competition 12 times as many boys as are usually allowed. This meet, as a result of plans made to stimulate and actually include large numbers, handled almost 20,000 competitors in 1926.

PROJECTS FOR PRACTICE

1. Make a diagram showing side elevation of
 - a. Spacing of hurdles in the 120 yard hurdle race.
 - b. Spacing of hurdles in the 220 yard hurdle race.
 Similar diagram showing ground plan of
 - c. Circle and line for shot.
 - d. Circle and line for discus.
2. Plan a swimming meet between two groups of college men, two contestants on a side in each event, meet to be completed in one hour. Give list of officials and list of equipment needed. Be ready to conduct it.
3. Plan a track and field meet between boys of two junior high schools, including two dashes, two jumps, two throws, one climb, one relay, three contests in elements of games, and one game. Meet to be finished in two hours. Give list of officials, list of equipment, and be ready to conduct it.
4. Similar meet for senior high school girls with three running events, one jump, two throws, one balance, one relay, four contests in elements of games.
5. Plan a meet between two groups of high school girls, using as events the ten events of the girls' badge test, four girls

from each side to compete in each event. Plan to use gymnasium 50 x 80 feet, making diagram of floor as arranged for the meet. Give list of officials and of equipment. Be ready to conduct it. To be completed in one hour.

6. Study the program of Belle Isle meet and find how many contestants are handled per hour in the various events. Which is the slowest of all?
7. Make a diagram showing starting and finish lines for a 220 yard dash on an oval track that has but 160 yards straightaway. Mark position of hurdles to be used for the 220 yard hurdle race.
8. Select a suitable list of events for a meet between six elementary schools of a city. Arrange for two classes each of boys and girls, divided as in the rural athletic meet described in this chapter, and use none of the events of that meet. Plan for trophies for individuals and a banner for each of the two best schools. Specify details of scoring.
9. Plan a meet between two groups of high school girls, the events selected from the elements of hockey (3 events), tennis (3 events), baseball (4 events), and basket ball (4 events). Specify the events, plan to have 24 contestants in each event from each class, make the program, give list of officials, and state shortest time in which it can be done.
10. Plan a relay carnival between the boys of five junior high schools. Select ten relay events, not more than five in plain running, give list of officials, list of equipment, scoring plans, make program, be ready to conduct it.

CHAPTER IX

TOURNAMENTS, ROUND ROBINS, AND ALL-YEAR SCORING SYSTEMS

The form of organization known as a "Meet" cares nicely for competitions such as races, jumps and throws, which take but a few minutes each, but it does not make so good a plan for determining championships in games of baseball, soccer, football or basket ball, sets of tennis and matches in golf, which occupy an hour or more and produce so much fatigue that only one should be played in a day. The plan that leads up to the championship in the shortest time for competitions of this nature is the tournament. Here we have a series of rounds, with the opponents determined by chance.

The method of conducting a simple tournament may be illustrated by one with eight contestants or teams. The manager of the tournament calls a meeting of representatives, one for each team, provides himself with eight cards or tags that are just alike excepting that they have the letters A, B, etc. up to H on the back, and places on the board the following diagram, which he explains to the people representing the teams:

A } B } C } D } E } F } G } H }	Game 1, Court 1, 7 P.M., Thurs.	}	Game 5, Court 1, 7 P.M., Fri.	}	Game 7, 8 P.M. Sat.		
	Game 2, Court 2, 7 P.M., Thurs.						
	Game 3, Court 1, 8 P.M., Thurs.	}	Game 6, Court 1, 8 P.M., Fri.				
	Game 4, Court 2, 8 P.M., Thurs.						

The team that draws A is to play the team that draws B, and so on, the winners of games 1 and 2 play game 5, the winners of 3 and 4 play 6, and the winners of 5 and 6 play game 7, which is the final game of this tournament.

As soon as everything is understood, the manager shuffles the cards containing the letters to be drawn, places them face down

on the table and calls on the representatives of the teams to come up, one by one in alphabetical order, and draw a card. As a man draws a card he shows the letter to the group, the clerk writes the name of the team on the diagram on the board at the left side of the letter that is drawn, and so on until all the cards are drawn. If any representatives are absent, the manager appoints a neutral party to draw for that team, and the drawing goes on. This completes the schedule for the entire tournament.

Now the manager places the diagram where all spectators can see it, and the play can begin. When possible, it is well to make the drawing two or three days before the play is to begin. This allows for publicity and the names of the teams can be printed in the official program of the tournament. As fast as the games are played, the names of the winners and the scores are put in place in the bracket, and when the tournament is finished the diagram is like this:

Chelsea	}	Saline, 28-25	}	Howell, 19-17	}	Milan, 22-18
Saline	}		}			
Howell	}	Howell, 18-2	}			
Redford	}		}			
Dundee	}	Milan, 23-21	}	Milan, 11-10		
Milan	}		}			
Monroe	}	Mason, 16-12	}			
Mason	}		}			

The arrangement of the tournament is very simple when the number of players or teams is 4, 8, 16, 32, or any other perfect power of 2. The plan stated above works perfectly and the number of games is always one less than the number of teams; what is more important than the total number of games, the number of rounds is always the number of times 2 is a factor in the number of teams; 3 for eight teams, 4 for 16, 5 for 32, etc. The number of teams therefore determines the number of days necessary to complete the tournament. In some games the time may be shortened by playing more than one round a day, but while this may be feasible in tennis and some minor games, it is too much for the players to do so in basket ball or soccer.

When the number of teams is not a perfect power of two, a plan is used that reduces it to a perfect power of two for the second round. This plan is called the "system of byes," and the rule of

organization is as follows: to find the number of byes, subtract the number of teams from the next higher number that is a perfect power of two; this gives the number of teams that will draw byes in the first round, and the second round will have a number of teams that is a power of two. For example, when there are thirty-nine teams, we subtract 39 from 64, which is the next number greater than 39 that is a perfect power of two; this gives 25, the number of byes, or teams not playing in the first round. Taking 25 from 39 leaves 14, the number of teams to play in the first round, so there are 7 games to provide for in the first round. The rules further provide that the byes shall be distributed as evenly as possible between the top and bottom of the bracket, and therefore we have 12 byes at the top and 13 at the bottom; the first 12 letters, from A to L inclusive, draw byes, the next 14, from M to Z play, and the last 13, from b to m, are byes. (See diagram following.) Notice that the 7 winners, with the 25 byes, make a total of 32 teams for the second round, a perfect power of two. This plan is always satisfactory, for every one understands that it is equally fair for all, and no one minds playing or taking a bye in the first round. When a manager plans a tournament that calls for byes later in the play there is always dissatisfaction.

This plan of organization and the rule stated will give the proper bracketing for any number of teams whatever. When the bracket is large it is not feasible to put it all on the bulletin boards for the information of the spectators, the better plan being to make a schedule for each round like the following:

TOURNAMENT PROGRAM FOR WEDNESDAY EVENING

Court 1, 7:30	P. M.—Wyandotte vs. Dearborn
Court 2, “	“ —Ypsilanti vs. Howell
Court 3, “	“ —Saline vs. Farmington
Court 4, “	“ —Chealsea vs. Redford
Court 1, 8:30	“ —Monroe vs. Albion
Court 2, “	“ —Belleville vs. Dexter
Court 3, “	“ —Hillsdale vs. Royal Oak
Court 4, “	“ —Ferndale vs. Britton

The printed schedule should still show the full program with space for players and spectators to write in the scores, which they can obtain from the large bracket displayed on the wall of the gymnasium.

Besides the organization of the plan of play, the manager of a tournament must arrange a full set of officials for each game, doorkeepers, ushers, and an official scorer, who collects the scores from the scorers. Score sheets, stop watches, whistles and all the other equipment must be provided.

TOURNAMENT PLAN WITH 39 TEAMS

	Round 1	Round 2	Round 3	Round 4	Round 5	Round 6							
Byes	A	Game 8	Game 24	Game 32	Game 36	Game 38							
	B	Game 9											
	C	Game 10	Game 25										
	D												
	E	Game 11	Game 26										
	F												
	G	Game 12	Game 27	Game 33									
	H												
	I	Game 13	Game 34										
	J												
	K	Game 1	Game 20	Game 29	Game 37								
	L												
Byes	M	Game 2	Game 21	Game 30	Game 35								
	N	Game 3											
	O	Game 22	Game 28	Game 31									
	P						Game 4						
	Q	Game 23	Game 34	Game 37									
	R						Game 5						
	S	Game 14	Game 29										
	T						Game 6						
	U	Game 15	Game 30										
	V		Game 7				Game 35						
	W	Game 16											
	X									Game 17			
	Y	Game 18											
	Z									Game 19			
Byes	a	Game 14	Game 29	Game 30	Game 35								
	b	Game 15											
	c	Game 31	Game 36	Game 37									
	d						Game 16						
	e	Game 32	Game 33										
	f						Game 17						
	g	Game 33	Game 34										
	h						Game 18						
	i	Game 34	Game 35										
	j						Game 19						
	k	Game 35	Game 36										
	l						Game 20						
	m												

When there are among the entries for a tournament two teams representing the same institution, these teams should draw letters from opposite halves of the bracket, so that they cannot be called upon to play one another unless both reach the final. It is necessary in such a case to put the cards for the upper and lower halves of the bracket in separate places on the table, so that these two

teams can avoid one another. The same plan is often used to advantage when some outstanding teams or players are entered; these strong and well-known players or teams are directed to draw from opposite halves of the bracket or even from different quarters of the bracket, and then they cannot meet in play unless they reach the semi-final or final game. This pleases everybody, because the audience wishes to see high-class play and this plan makes it possible to have high-class play all the way to the finish. If left entirely to chance, the best team may eliminate the two next best in the first two rounds and leave only mediocre games for the balance of the tournament.

The main objection to the tournament plan of play is that it is to a certain extent unfair, because so much depends on chance rather than on superior play, and also that half the contestants are eliminated in the first round and have but one chance to play. To this objection it may be said that the main object of competition is after all to promote interest rather than to pick champions, so that if some one not in the final game thinks he is as good as either of these or better, let him think so, and let there be no bad feelings on that account. As a partial remedy, and to encourage weaker teams to try, the losers in the first round of play are often scheduled in a so-called "Consolation Series." This is another tournament, scheduled in the same manner as any other, and there may be a new drawing by the losing teams or the original drawing may determine the bracket; a new drawing is usually advisable when there is an odd number of teams, because the number in the consolation series will depend on whether, for instance, Y, Z or a is the loser in game 23 of the big bracket on a preceding page; if a loses he will go on in the consolation, making 20, otherwise there will be 19.

PROJECTS FOR PRACTICE

1. Make a bracket for a tournament of six teams; one for 18 teams; 28 teams; 34 teams; 57 teams. State number of days needed, number of officials and number of courts necessary.
2. Conduct a drawing in class with any one of the brackets in (1) that may be called for.

3. Conduct a tournament in hand-wrestling with the class, making a bracket to suit the number present, conducting the drawing and the contests.
4. Four district tournaments send the best two teams of classes B, C and D to a regional tournament. When must the regional tournament play the first games so as to complete the tournament Saturday evening, and so that no team will have to play two games any one day? Is it feasible to schedule consolation tournaments when the manager has three gymnasiums available? Make a program showing how much in this line can be done.
5. Plan a tennis tournament between six colleges, each college to be represented by one team in doubles and two in singles. Plan how to make the drawing so that all the byes of the tournament shall be distributed as evenly as possible among the colleges, and so that no player in singles will have to meet his team mate unless they reach the final. Be ready to demonstrate the method chosen.

THE PERCENTAGE SERIES, OR ROUND ROBIN

School and college teams usually play one or two games a week through a season lasting from six to ten weeks, and they like to have those games show the relative strength of the teams when the season is finished. The percentage of each team is found by dividing the number of games won by the total number played, with the results expressed decimally in three places of figures, as illustrated in the following table:

Teams	Games Won	Games Lost	Percentage
A	12	0	1000
B	10	2	833
C	9	3	750
D	6	6	500
E	3	9	250
F	2	10	166
G	0	12	000

In this series there were seven teams, so each team had six others to play, and in the twelve games recorded each one must have played the others twice, once at home and once as a visitor. With

110 THE CONDUCT OF PHYSICAL ACTIVITIES

seven teams it is easy to see that in each round there will be three games, and one team will have a bye. It is desirable to arrange the schedule so that the byes will be distributed evenly, each team having a bye before any team has a second one. It is also desirable that each team should play every other team, rather than to play some team twice and others not at all. There are several ways of arranging the schedule to bring all these things about, and one of the best and easiest ways will next be described.

Planning a Round Robin. When one works at this problem with a pencil, it is most convenient to have paper that is ruled into squares; if a typewriter is used, this is not necessary. The letters A, B, C, etc., are used here to represent the teams and figures 1, 2, 3, etc., to represent the rounds of play. The letters are written in a horizontal row and again in a vertical column, as may be seen in the following diagrams. The place where a row crosses a column represents a game between those two teams, and the figure placed at this point indicates the round in which that game is to be played. For example, in the plan for seven teams, figure 5 near the center of the diagram is at the crossing of row C and column D, signifying that C plays D in the 5th round; two other figure 5's indicate that a game between B and E and another between A and F also occur in that round.

Plan for Seven Teams

	A	B	C	D	E	F	G
A	*	1	2	3	4	5	6
B		*	3	4	5	6	7
C			*	5	6	7	1
D				*	7	1	2
E					*	2	3
F						*	4
G							*

Plan for Nine Teams

	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I
A	*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
B		*	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
C			*	5	6	7	8	9	1
D				*	7	8	9	1	2
E					*	9	1	2	3
F						*	2	3	4
G							*	4	5
H								*	6
I									*

One half of the big square has room for all the games in one series, and if a second series is desired, the other half can be filled or the first plan simply duplicated. The diagonal filled with stars will be seen to represent only imaginary games.

The reader can observe that in the plan for seven teams each of the seven rounds includes three games, and in the plan for nine teams each of the nine rounds includes four games; this is evidently the right number in each case, since with an odd number of teams there is always a bye.

Now the numbers indicating the rounds of play are arranged in a diagram according to two simple rules:

1. The numbers increase from left to right in regular numerical order in each row, until you reach the number of teams in the league you are organizing; when this number is reached, begin at 1 and go up the scale as before.

2. After the first row, which begins with 1, you first find the place where the next row of figures is to begin, look at the number just above it, and start the row with the *next higher number*.

Notice in the diagrams that in the first case A plays in the first six rounds and has a bye in the seventh, while in the other case A plays in the first eight rounds and has a bye in the ninth round. To observe the same for B one must look both in a row and a column; it can be seen that B has a bye in the second round, C in the fourth, etc.

By following this plan and the two rules just stated, one can arrange the series of games for any number of teams whatever, and with little opportunity for mistakes.

While this plan will make a schedule for any number of teams, it is not a perfect plan with an even number, for it gives each team a bye, which is not necessary with even numbers of teams, since every team can play in every round; the byes result in there being one round more than is needed to complete the series. A slight modification of that plan corrects this defect in case the number of teams is even. There are two changes in the procedure:

1. In going up the scale of numbers (Rule 1) stop at *one less than* the number of teams, instead of at the number of teams, as you did in the former plan. Eight teams require only seven rounds: ten teams, nine rounds, etc.

2. After the first row, which is arranged the same as before, the *last* number in any row is one less than the *first* number of the same row; for example, the first number of row B is 3, so the last number should be 2; the first in row D is 7, so the last is 6. The two plans accompanying will illustrate:

112 THE CONDUCT OF PHYSICAL ACTIVITIES

Plan for Eight Teams

	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H
A	*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B		*	3	4	5	6	7	2
C			*	5	6	7	1	4
D				*	7	1	2	6
E					*	2	3	1
F						*	4	3
G							*	5
H								*

Plan for Ten Teams

	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J
A	*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
B		*	3	4	5	7	8	8	9	2
C			*	5	6	7	8	9	1	4
D				*	7	8	9	1	2	6
E					*	9	1	2	3	8
F						*	2	3	4	1
G							*	4	5	3
H								*	6	5
I									*	7
J										*

These diagrams are for use by experts in arranging the schedule, and not for information of the general public. For the newspapers and for bulletin boards in the school halls it is plainer to translate the program into plain English, using the names of the teams and the dates. The schedule for eight teams would appear in some form similar to this:

JANUARY 5:

Ann Arbor plays Jackson at Jackson.
 Dearborn plays Royal Oak at Dearborn.
 Pontiac plays Adrian at Pontiac.
 Redford plays Monroe at Redford.

JANUARY 12:

Ann Arbor plays Dearborn at Ann Arbor.
 Jackson plays Monroe at Monroe.
 Royal Oak plays Pontiac at Royal Oak.
 Adrian plays Redford at Adrian.

Etc., etc.

Combined Plans. When there are too many teams to make a round robin feasible, it is often to devise a combination of the tournament and round robin plans that will be better. For example, the Detroit schools had on one occasion eighty-three soccer teams, for which a plan of competition must be worked out. A tournament would eliminate half of them in the first round, and that was not desirable. A round robin would require each team to play eighty-two games, which, of course, is out of the question. Dividing the eighty-three teams into fourteen leagues of about six

teams each or twelve leagues of seven teams each, each league has time to play one round robin, and each group of teams having about the same percentage can then play a tournament. The leagues can be formed of teams living within convenient distances. Such an organization into leagues, with games scheduled regularly and the schedules posted in each school, helps maintain the interest, even if some teams drop out; the director will, of course, try to keep them all in to the end.

PROJECTS FOR PRACTICE

1. Plan a round robin for five teams; six teams; twelve teams; fifteen teams.
2. A league of six teams is to play a percentage schedule with one game a week, beginning Friday, January 4th. Write out the full schedule of games and dates. How can this schedule be carried out if there are only three courts available?
3. A city has twenty-eight teams playing baseball in a season of ten weeks and only one game can be played each week by any team. Plan a division into leagues, so that each league can play a round robin and the two best in each league play a tournament, finishing the tenth week. Schedule the round robins and tournaments, then write out the full schedule, beginning Saturday, April 10th.
4. A basket ball class of forty-eight boys has the use of three courts for one hour five days a week. Allowing six boys to a team, how long will it take them to play a round robin? Then choose up teams anew and play another. Can they still play a tournament before the end of a term of twelve weeks?
5. Conduct a round robin in hand-wrestling with ten contestants from the class. Conduct the contests so as to finish all in thirty minutes, with the percentage table of results ready to put on the board within the next five minutes.

All-year Scoring Systems. At the time of a game and at the end of a championship season the enthusiasm for athletics rises

114 THE CONDUCT OF PHYSICAL ACTIVITIES

to fever heat, to die out completely or at least to fall to too low an ebb between such times of stress. Interest can be sustained at a somewhat more even level through the influence of a scoring system for the work of the entire year. Classes and other organizations and individuals as well are encouraged to go into activities in which they are not especially strong, in the hope of winning a few points to round out their total. The idea is a good one, since it shows impulsive ones who shine in a few things that less brilliant people excel them in the long run by more steady effort.

Plans for scoring the entire work of the year will depend so much on the local situation and the program of work that most directors will have to plan a system of their own, and the best assistance that can be given is to show a few illustrations. Mr. E. D. Mitchell has developed a rather complete system of all-year scoring for intramural activities at Ann Arbor, and that will be shown first:

UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN INTRAMURAL SCORING SYSTEM

TOURNAMENTS—ROUND ROBINS—MEETS

MAJOR	INTERMEDIATE	MINOR	MAJOR	INTERMEDIATE	MINOR
Football	Tennis	Handball	Outdoor Tr.	Country	Winter Sports
Baseball	Volley Ball	Bowling	Indoor Tr.	Golf	Foul Shooting
Basket Ball	Hockey	Horseshoes	Swimming	Pentathlon	
Soccer	Wrestling	Fencing	Gymnastics	Relays	
Speedball	Boxing	Tug-of-war			
50-150	35-100	25-75	40-100	30-75	20-50

The figures are the minimum and maximum scores; the first score is given for entering a team, the last for winning the championship. In a tournament in soccer, for example, since 50 is scored for entering a team, only 100 more is awarded for winning games; if there are between eight and sixteen teams, four rounds must be played, so that the champion team gets 100 for winning four games, or 25 points per game, which is the amount given for winning any game in that tournament. In a round robin with six

teams the champions might win five games, earning 20 points per game. A team winning two games in the round robin would receive 50 for entering and 40 for winning the two games, 90 points in all; if they won two games in a tournament of eight and sixteen teams they would get 50 for entering and 50 for winning two games, 100 in all. Meets are scored on a similar plan, 20 to 40 being allowed for entering and 30 to 60 additional for winning the championship. If a track team wins the meet with a track score of 30, the 60 points allowed them on the all-year plan is 2 points for each point scored in the meet; therefore, a team that won 5 points in the meet receives 40 for entering and 10 for winning, or a total of 50 points in outdoor track.

Football, baseball, etc., and track, swimming, etc., are classed as major sports because they have more members on a team and are more popular, which means more competition and more games to win, hence larger scores. Intermediate games like volley ball have many on a team but are not so popular and do not involve so much team play; minor sports do not require so much preliminary training.

MICHIGAN STATE NORMAL COLLEGE

INTRAMURAL ATHLETICS FOR MEN

L. W. Olds, *Director*

INTERFRATERNITY LEAGUE—Organization:

The Director of the Department is assisted by the Board of Control, composed of one athletic manager representing each fraternity of the league. At the suggestion of the Director, the Board assists in formulating rules, regulations, and decides all disputes or questions of eligibility by a two-thirds vote. The Director selects all officials necessary in carrying on the games of the league. He is assisted in this work by student Intramural Manager who is a representative of the College Athletic Council.

INTERCLASS LEAGUE:

The Director is assisted by four athletic managers, elected by their respective classes, these four managers to act as an Athletic Committee, and assist in formulating rules and regulations for the Interclass League. The Intramural Manager has charge of officials and grounds for Interclass contests.

116 THE CONDUCT OF PHYSICAL ACTIVITIES

POINT SYSTEM:

INTERCLASS LEAGUE

Major Sports		Minor Sports	
	Points		Points
Football championship	60	Cross-Country championship....	40
Basket ball championship	60	Speedball championship	40
Track (indoor) championship..	60	Volley ball championship	40
Baseball championship	60	Swimming championship	40
Track (outdoor) championship..	60	Tennis championship	40
Second place major sports.....	40	Second place minor sports.....	30
Third place major sports.....	20	Third place minor sports.....	20
Fourth place major sports.....	10	Fourth place minor sports.....	10

INTERFRATERNITY LEAGUE

Major Sports		Minor Sports	
	Points		Points
Speedball championship	125	Handball championship	75
Basket ball championship	125	Volley ball championship	75
Track (indoor) championship..	125	Swimming championship	75
Baseball championship	125	Tennis championship	75
Track (outdoor) championship..	125	Quoits championship	75
Second place major sports.....	100	Second place minor sports.....	60
Third place major sports.....	75	Third place minor sports.....	45
Fourth place major sports.....	50	Fourth place minor sports.....	30
Fifth place major sports.....	25	Fifth place minor sports.....	15

Note: All ties must be played off for first place in any sport. Ties resulting for other places may be decided by the toss of a coin if situation is inadequate for play-off.

MICHIGAN STATE NORMAL COLLEGE

INTRAMURAL SPORTS FOR WOMEN

Doris Chamberlin, *Director*

Point Systems for Teams—Interclass

Major Sports	Minor Sports
Hockey	Volley ball
Basket ball	Swimming
Track (indoor and out)	Tennis

INTERCLUB AND INTERSORORITY

Volley ball		Archery
Basket ball		Quoits
Baseball		Tennis
	Points	
100championship	75
75second	50
50third	25
25fourth	10
10fifth	

Point System for Individuals

	Points Total
1. LEADERSHIP:	
Campfire (25 points for each three degrees).....	75
Girl Scouts (same as for Campfire).....	75
Coaching and officiating	50
Life Saving Examiner	100
Director of a pageant.....	50
2. SCHOLARSHIP (for one year):	
"C" average with no failures.....	25
"B" average with nothing below "C".....	50
Teaching grade in professional work grade "A".....	50
Teaching grade in Training school grade "B".....	50
Honor teacher	50
3. SPORTS:	
Major—Champions	100
Second	75
Minor—Champions	75
Meets and Tournaments	75
Participation	25
4. INDIVIDUAL PHYSICAL EFFICIENCY:	
Dancing tests (natural, clogging and folk (25 points each).....	75
Participation in fêtes (solo dancing 50 points, group dancing 25) ..	75
Gymnastics (apparatus and stunts 25 points each).....	50
Swimming (passing life-saving tests).....	75
Badge Tests (the three Bancroft Badge Tests 25 points each)....	75
Physical Examination (passed with grade "B" or above).....	50
5. INDIVIDUAL SPORTS:	
Archery, quoits, bowling, hiking, bicycling, golf, canoeing, horse- back riding, tennis, skiing, skating and tobogganing (25 points each)	300
a. No more than 125 points may be earned from this group in one year by any one person.	
b. To earn points in the above, the activity has to be done at least twelve 45-minute periods in one season.	

118 THE CONDUCT OF PHYSICAL ACTIVITIES

In tournaments, 5 points shall be given for the first two rounds and 10 for every round after the second.

Women may earn an emblem of the W. A. A., a block letter "Y" or a sweater by playing on teams, passing the tests and the requirements according to the following rules:

1. The right to wear a letter shall not be granted any girl in her freshman year on the campus.
2. Six hundred of the necessary twelve hundred points for a sweater must be earned by participating in major and minor sports.
3. Details for the Individual efficiency Tests and cards for checking individual sports may be procured from the Recorder of Points.
4. Satisfactory health examinations are required before a woman may be placed on a team.

POINTS TO EARN FOR AWARDS:

300 points	W. A. A. emblem
600 points	letter
1200 points	sweater

Reliability and Sportsmanship. The question of awarding points for these qualities has been under discussion for some time. Some claim that the rules of play cover all these things and that to mark them is a duplication and a chance for favoritism; others believe that it is desirable to keep such matters of conduct constantly before the players in an emphatic manner; still others have looked upon scoring for these things as desirable but difficult and perhaps impossible. The all-year scoring plan seems to offer a more promising opportunity to emphasize reliability and sportsmanship than we have had before by offering extra points for especially commendable conduct and spirit. Those who go through a whole year with no forfeit of games, no failure to file required lists and reports, always on time in business matters and in games, certainly deserve special award for reliability; those who have not been discourteous to opponents or officials, who have not deliberately violated rules, persistently raised unsound objections nor made any objections except as the rules provide, and whose rooters have not behaved improperly at the games, surely deserve an award for sportsmanship. If such awards are to be made, some one in charge must make note of all the points agreed upon under the two heads at the time of each game, and not leave it to be settled by general impressions, which are not reliable. Even if players avoid wrong conduct selfishly, to win the points, they are at least forming desirable habits.

PROJECTS FOR PRACTICE

1. Select suitable activities for an all-year scoring system for a senior high school. Would the U. of M. grouping apply satisfactorily?
2. Same for a junior high school.
3. Make out a table of points that you think would be practical for scoring several items under reliability and sportsmanship as a part of an all-year plan.
4. What is the argument for giving so many points for merely entering a team in a tournament or meet? How encourage them to stay in if they are weak?
5. Will the plans shown in this chapter apply to individuals or only to classes and other organized groups? Should it apply to individuals?

REFERENCES

MITCHELL: Intramural Athletics
WILLIAMS: Physical Education

CHAPTER X

PLANNING THE YEAR'S PROGRAM FOR EACH GRADE

A complete program of physical education should be arranged for every school system, for many reasons too evident to need statement here. A satisfactory program will include:

1. The times and places set apart for the conduct of the activities of each grade or group.
2. The daily time schedule of each member of the physical education staff, including all who give a part of their time to this department, and
3. The list of activities selected for each grade and their distribution into the fall, winter and spring seasons.

This general program should be arranged by the physical director in coöperation with superintendent; with this outline at hand, each teacher of the staff is in a position to select the proper material for the daily programs for each grade, which should be made out in full detail and submitted to the director or superintendent one or two weeks in advance. Planning all programs a week or two ahead and submitting them regularly to the director in charge insures complete coöperation between the teachers who carry out the programs and the director who makes the general plan and is responsible for it, unifying the work of the department and helping to accomplish its purposes. Incidentally it will help to make a fair distribution of the facilities of the department and the services of its staff among the children of the city, and show where space and equipment are lacking.

Amount of Time. How much time the school should devote to physical activity, so that the health and vigor of the children will not be sacrificed, is yet an undecided question. We lack scientific data as to how rapidly the tissues of the body weaken and degenerate with disuse, as to how much the suppression of activity required by the school is responsible for the increase of certain diseases of middle life and for the incapacity of educated women to bear and raise children, and other matters of like nature. We

are warned by what we do know that the chief danger lies in the direction of providing too little physical activity, because it costs something and the public lacks interest in it; we know that the younger children, when not in school, spend practically all their waking hours in active play, if space and facilities are provided; in vacation time they play all day long for weeks, gaining in height, weight and vigor more rapidly than in school time; farm hands work hard from twelve to fourteen hours a day and thrive on it; business men build up rapidly during the outdoor life and activity of a vacation and lose it all again during the year of sedentary life, although the life of a business man is seldom as inactive as the extreme quiet required in school.

Because of the awakening of educators and the more intelligent people of our communities to such considerations as the above, the time devoted by the schools to physical education has been gradually lengthened from ten or twenty minutes to a half hour each day; some schools that have been giving a half hour have now increased it to a full hour daily. Physical educators who study the question are more and more inclined to say that, at least up to the time of college graduation, every normal person should, in his own interest, devote at least two hours a day to physical activity, and that plans and systems of physical education that promise perfect condition and rapid development in fifteen or twenty minutes a day can only raise false hopes and must in the end fail, for it is not reasonable to expect the bodily development life demands without activity, or to gain such development by being active only 1 or 2 per cent of the time. One who devotes eight hours to sleep and two hours to physical activity has fourteen hours left for work and amusement, and the two hours of activity may well be counted, if he has been normally developed, among his hours of recreation.

Time in the School Program for Physical Education. The time the school will give in its program of classes to physical education should be guided by such considerations as we have just taken up, but it will practically depend on the space and equipment provided, the number of teachers employed, and on the views the superintendent and the community take on the question. A teacher can do a little in twenty minutes a day, and in half an hour daily he can do much, in teaching attractive exercises and making them so well liked that the pupils will practice them in their leisure

hours, instead of spending so many of them in the cheap movie show, the candy store and the soft drink stand. Unless the school acts as a vigorous promoter of wholesome active recreation it plays into the hands of promoters of commercial amusement by habituating the pupils to an inactive life, so that they are too easily fatigued to enjoy the active games and sports they need.

Space and Equipment. Time for physical education may be limited by lack of space and equipment. A school, for example, may have one gymnasium and one combination of playground and athletic field for a thousand pupils. In such a case, in fair weather, assuming that gymnasium and field can be used eight hours a day (which may not be feasible) there is room for sixteen classes of one hour each; this would make the classes average sixty pupils each; when the weather does not permit the use of the field (about five months, or half the school year, in this climate) every pupil can be given physical activity every day only by dividing the time into half-hour periods or by increasing the size of the classes to one hundred and twenty. By a proper arrangement of hours, two teachers working six hours a day and a director teaching four hours could handle the program, but it would be a heavy load; six hours of continuous handling of large classes taxes the endurance of any teacher. If the gymnasium is large enough for two classes and can be divided by a canvas or other movable partition, the same program can be followed through the winter; when the gymnasium cannot be divided to any advantage, if the teachers are strong on organization and management, one hundred and twenty pupils can be handled at once by a squad and leader system, with two teachers in charge. If the classes are held for only half-hour periods the teachers can take charge in alternation, giving them more opportunity for a rest between the working periods; during a part of the day the vacant half hour of each class of pupils could probably be used as a study period, but in the late afternoon it would be difficult for the school to provide satisfactory employment for the half hours of waiting, when the work of the school is arranged on full-hour periods. The school will also have a basket ball team to coach, and unless it is thought best by the principal and superintendent to have the team practice in the evening, the use of the gymnasium for the last hour and a half must be assigned to the team.

In cities and towns where physical education is strongly supported a plan similar to the one just outlined is apt to be used, using their facilities to full capacity every day and hour, employing a large and strong teaching staff to make it possible, in order to secure an hour of physical activity for every pupil every day. In many places there is less enthusiasm for the work and the requirement is cut in half, the elementary pupils having physical education twice a week and high school pupils either twice a week or every day for the first half of the course. From the standpoint of the teachers there is an advantage here in the smaller classes, requiring less haste and more free hours, but on the other hand it is more difficult to interest and secure development in pupils who come only twice a week. Such a limitation of the work is often necessary because of lack of space, equipment or teachers.

It is impossible to give all the students in this course the exact information and training they need for the positions they will take, because in the first place there is such an endless variety of situations to meet in the different systems of schools, and in the second place because the superintendents, principals and physical directors in the schools, under whom the beginning teacher has to work, have such an endless variety of ways of handling such situations. The best that can be done is to show a few widely different situations and have students discuss them and exercise their judgment upon the practical problems they involve.

What for example is the best plan of work in a school system consisting of one senior high school of 200 pupils with a gymnasium and with an athletic field too far away for use as a playground; a new junior high school of 300 pupils with a gymnasium, a playground and a swimming pool; and two elementary schools of six grades each averaging 40 pupils to a grade, neither having a gymnasium and only one a playground? How many teachers are needed? How should they be distributed? How much time can be given to physical education in each of these schools? What after-school and evening classes are advisable?

In schools conducted on the platoon system the problems are somewhat simpler, yet these schools differ so much in size of classes and in room and equipment for the work that every school presents another group of practical problems to be solved.

Daily Time Schedule. After making a study of the problems

124 THE CONDUCT OF PHYSICAL ACTIVITIES

and conditions to which we just referred, the director should plan a daily schedule of hours for physical education for each school and grade, and secure its approval by the superintendent and the principal of the school concerned; it will be best to confer with grade teachers also in many cases. When this program of hours has been filled in by the teacher of physical education with the activities selected for a week, it will have a form similar to the following sample:

PROGRAM USED BY GRADES 3, 4, 7 AND 8 IN TRAINING SCHOOL
GYMNASIUM, YPSILANTI, JANUARY 7-11, 1918

Third Grade 9:30-10	<i>Monday</i> Story Play 3 little kittens	<i>Tuesday</i> Posture talk in room	<i>Wednesday</i> Gymnastics	<i>Thursday</i> Free Play	<i>Friday</i> Free Play
Fourth Grade 10-10:30	Schottische step	Posture talk in room	Gymnastics	Game Club Snatch	Free Play
7th and 8th Grade Boys 10:30-11	Badge test Jump and Ball throw	Captain Ball	Gymnastics	Badge test Basket ball Goal throw	Badge test Same as Monday
7th and 8th Grade Girls 11-11:30	Badge test Balance beam, target, Volley serve	Gymnastics	Captain Ball	Merry-go- round	Badge tests Same as Monday

In assigning hours to the various grades, the smaller children should be given their physical activities, as far as can be arranged, near the middle of the forenoon and afternoon sessions, because they need the activity for relief from the strain of enforced quiet more than the older ones, who have become more accustomed to the restrictions of the school. It is better, for reasons closely related to the above, to divide the time of the two or three lower grades between forenoon and afternoon; pupils of higher grades should have their physical training in a single period usually, because their interest is more sustained and because they learn faster if the practice is given in longer periods.

Time for Bathing. In junior and senior high schools, and especially in the latter, shower baths are advisable after vigorous activity. It is not difficult to arrange for this when the school is run on a schedule of full-hour periods, but when, as in many schools, the hours are only 45 minutes long, it is too short a time for dressing and bathing besides the practice. A plan of using double periods is advised in this situation by the U. S. Bureau of Edu-

PLANNING YEAR'S PROGRAM FOR EACH GRADE 125

cation, which has the advantage of using the gymnasium or playground continuously. A class uses the gymnasium for 45 minutes and then the next class comes in; each class goes to the shower and dressing rooms from the gymnasium and, following the 15 minutes spent there, employs the remainder of the double period in hygiene, a study period, or otherwise, as the director and principal provide. The most evident advantage of the plan is the more complete utilization of the physical education facilities. With the school program arranged on full-hour periods and classes stopping their gymnasium practice in time to take showers, the gymnasium lies idle one-fourth of the time; with the plan of double periods of 45 minutes each, eight classes use the facilities in six hours instead of six classes. The showers, dressing rooms and toilets are used on the proposed plan while the main body of the school is in class, instead of at times of greater congestion, which is the case on the hour plan. The following chart shows how the hours are distributed with the plan of double periods.

	<i>First Period</i>	<i>Second Period</i>	<i>Third Period</i>	<i>Fourth Period</i>	<i>Fifth Period</i>	<i>Sixth Period</i>	<i>Seventh Period</i>	<i>Eighth Period</i>
Class 1	Gym	Bath Study or Hygiene	S c h o o l A c t i v i t i e s					
Class 2	School	Gym	Bath Study or Hygiene	S c h o o l A c t i v i t i e s				
Class 3	S c h o o l		Gym	Bath Study or Hygiene	S c h o o l A c t i v i t i e s			
Class 4	S c h o o l			Gym	Bath Study or Hygiene	School	A c t i v i t i e s	
Class 5	S c h o o l A c t i v i t i e s				Gym	Bath Study or Hygiene	S c h o o l	
Class 6	S c h o o l A c t i v i t i e s					Gym	Bath Study Hygiene	School
Class 7	S c h o o l A c t i v i t i e s						Gym	Bath Study Hygiene
Class 8	S c h o o l A c t i v i t i e s							Gym Bath

Selection of Activities. To select activities for any group, one must consider the age and sex of the pupils and then whether the

activity is best suited to outdoor or indoor practice and to which of the three seasons it is best adapted. To gain as much as pos-

ILLUSTRATIVE CHART

	Pre-School 0-5	Primary 6-8	Elementary 9-11	Junior H. S. 12-14	Senior H. S. 15-18	College 19-22	Maturity 23-35	Later Life 36-50
Simple Imitation 1	↓		↑					
Dramatic Imitation 2	↓	Story Plays	↑	Mimetics				
Stories and Handicraft 3	↓		↑					
Rhythmic Play 4	↓		↑		Girls		↑	
Gymnastics 5		↓	↑	Boys	Girls		↑	↑
Free Play 6			↑	Girls	Boys	↑		
Outdoor Sports 7	↓							↑
Physical Tests 8			↓	Boys			↑	
Athletic Contests 9			↓	Girls	Boys		↑	
Elementary Games 10			↑	Boys	Girls	↑		
Personal Combat 11			↓	Boys			↑	
Team Games 12			↓		Boys		↑	

sible of the more healthful conditions out of doors, indoor activities are limited to the winter season, as far as facilities permit. Traditions must be given some weight in the assignment of certain

PLANNING YEAR'S PROGRAM FOR EACH GRADE 127

activities, such as baseball and football, to certain seasons. As we pass up the grades, activities become more complex and sex differences in interests and special abilities more marked. The dances and games best suited to the older pupils involve greater variety of activity, so that it is not necessary nor desirable to make so much variety in the list of activities. As the children gradually lose enjoyment in imitation, which is their major interest in kindergarten and the first one or two grades, competition gradually becomes the major interest with boys and rhythm the major interest with girls. With the age of senior high school comes a marked increased tendency to specialize in physical activities as well as in studies; this is a reason why a wide range of activities is advisable for all through the junior high school. The general trend in the fitness of the main classes of physical activity to age and sex is indicated by the chart on page 126.

When the activities have been assigned to the age and sex groups, the next step is to arrange them by seasons, giving a chart of the following form:

ACTIVITIES ARRANGED BY GRADE, SEX AND SEASON

	FALL	WINTER	SPRING
Fourth Grade			
Third Grade			
Second Grade			
First Grade			
Fifth Grade { Boys			
{ Girls			
Sixth Grade { Boys			
{ Girls			
Junior High { Boys			
{ Girls			
Senior High { Boys			
{ Girls			

Enough space must be left between the divisions of the chart to insert all the activities for the grades and seasons. A considerable space will be needed, as the following sample fall program for Junior High School shows:

JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL (Grades 7-8-9) (Kalamazoo)

FALL TERM, SEPT.-OCT.-NOV.

I. PHYSICAL EXAMINATIONS AND ORGANIZATION OF CLASSES

II. GAMES:

Girls

Boys

1. Volley ball
2. Side kick
3. Schlag ball
4. Selected group games

1. Volley ball
2. Soccer

Season is finished with inter-school tournaments in volley ball for both girls and boys and with soccer for boys.

III. ATHLETICS:

- | | |
|--------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| 1. 75-yard dash | 1. Soccer kick for distance |
| 2. Distance throw, indoor ball | 2. Running broad jump |
| 3. Standing broad jump | 3. Overhead throw with soccer ball |

Records taken by grades in each event and average of entire grade computed. School with highest average wins.

IV. RHYTHMIC PLAYS (selected from list to be supplied)

V. HYGIENE:

Health talks, using "How to Live" by Fisher and Fisk as a basis; teaching of health habits by records of individual class members; discussion of bathing, posture and feet; special addresses by outside speakers.

WINTER TERM, DEC.-JAN.-FEB.-MAR.

I. MARCHING AND GYMNASTICS:

II. GAMES:

Girls

Boys

1. End ball
2. Corner ball
3. Volley ball
4. Progressive dodge ball
5. Newcomb

1. Basket ball
2. Minor group games

III. ATHLETICS:

Stunts
(Special outline)

1. Chinning
2. Goal shooting
3. Standing high jump

IV. RHYTHMIC PLAYS:

Grade 7

1. Flemish Folk Dances
2. Sweet Kate
3. Virginia Reel
4. Butterfly

Grade 8

1. The Signet Ring
2. Boscastle
3. Minuet
4. Highland Schottische

V. HYGIENE:

SPRING TERM, APR.—MAY—JUNE

I. GAMES:

Girls

1. Indoor baseball
2. Selected games and relays
(Interscholar tournament
in indoor baseball)

Boys

1. Baseball
(City Baseball League)

II. ATHLETICS:

1. Standing broad jump
2. Target throw
3. Low hurdles

1. 100-yard dash
2. Running high jump
3. Shot put

Records taken as in fall and winter—best school gets trophy.

III. RHYTHMIC PLAYS (selected)

IV. HYGIENE:

1. Transmission of disease
2. Prevention of disease
3. Camp sanitation

Program for Ungraded Schools. An informal leader plan is best here, since the pupils differ too widely in size and strength to make the same lesson good for all. The space is usually limited and the equipment scanty, and any formal practice must usually be done in the schoolroom between the desks. In order not to have too many groups, activities must be chosen that can be played by boys and girls together whenever possible. Free play out of doors, ability tests, athletic contests, and simple games are the best material. Special corrective exercises will be needed by a few.

PROJECTS FOR PRACTICE

1. In the large high school mentioned early in this chapter, plan the amount of physical education it is feasible to require if the facilities can be used seven hours a day and

the school team has the last hour; how many teachers needed and how arrange their hours; what evening classes are advisable, and how does this affect the staff required? Have plan ready to hand in.

2. Plan the same items for the system described having four buildings and state how you would distribute the teachers among the four schools. Hand in.
3. Criticize the assignment of hours in the program from the Training School, and assign the periods to suitable hours for the other grades, not going above the eighth.
4. Make out a plan for the use of double periods for a school having half hour instead of 45-minute periods; plan number of periods the school is apt to have in this case; what requirement of physical education is feasible with your plan if there are ten classes averaging 50 pupils each and if an hour is taken out at noon.
5. Make lists of suitable kinds of activity for the first six grades for each of the three seasons of the school year; separate the boys and girls in the grades where it is advisable.
6. Make similar lists for the three grades of the junior high school.
7. Make similar lists for the three grades of the senior high school.
8. Criticize the outline for fall term for junior high school; mention activities chosen which you believe might be replaced by others to advantage.
9. Same for the winter outline.
10. Same for the spring outline.
11. Using the list you have made under project 5, make the complete program, of the form illustrated under "Daily Time Schedule," for the first six grades for the first week of fall term. Have it ready to hand in, and bring to class for discussion.
12. Same for the sixth week of fall term.
13. Same for the first week and sixth week of winter term.
14. Same for the first week and sixth week of spring term.
15. Same as 11 and 12 for the three grades of junior high school.
16. Same as 13 and 14 for the three grades of junior high school.
17. Same as 15 and 16 for the three grades of senior high school.

18. When both games and athletics are scheduled for junior high school in the same season, should they be practiced on alternate days, or should one form of activity be given for several days or weeks and then change to the other? Give advantages and disadvantages of each plan. Is there difference between boys and girls in this respect? Between pupils of different ages? How would you answer these questions for senior high school?
19. Select ten activities suited to the conditions of an ungraded rural school.
20. How much time and space should be devoted to the school team in crowded gymnasias and crowded programs?

APPENDIX

SIMPLE GYMNASTIC POSITIONS

I. FUNDAMENTAL POSITION. (Pos.) (Cuts 1 and 2)

Command, *In position,—Stand!*

Heels four to six inches apart; feet parallel; entire body erect, inclined slightly forward from ankles; knees extended, hips back, chest high, head erect, chin in; arms at the sides, wrists and fingers extended but not too stiff, palms resting against the sides of the thighs.

Purpose: To cultivate normal posture and to serve as a starting position for other exercises.

As a posture exercise, fundamental standing position aims to do three things:

- (a) To strengthen muscles used in holding good posture;
- (b) To stretch some tissues and contract others, so as to correct the effects of bad postures;
- (c) To train the muscular sense and the proper nerve centers so that correct posture will be taken habitually.

To criticize fundamental position effectively it must be viewed from two directions: From front or rear and from the side, the latter usually being more important. Viewed from front or rear there should be bilateral symmetry: weight equally divided between the feet, spinal column straight and vertical, and hips and shoulders at the same height on each side and equally distant from the spine on each side. Viewed from the side, the general line of the body should be straight from head to heel with inclination forward at such an angle as will bring the center of gravity of the body over the balls of the feet; the spinal column should exhibit the three normal curves: cervical, dorsal, and lumbar. The poise is tested by rising on the toes; if one has to sway forward or back before rising, the weight was not over the balls of the feet.

Faults: Seen from the side:

- (a) Weight poised too far back,
- (b) Hips and abdomen too far forward,
- (c) Head too far forward,
- (d) Arms and hands too far forward.

Seen from the front or rear:

- (a) Weight not evenly divided,
- (b) Uneven hips or shoulders,
- (c) Head held to one side.

The combined effect of the first group of faults is to flatten the chest and lessen the range of the breathing movements; at the same time the organs in the body cavity are crowded and their action hindered. The combined

134 THE CONDUCT OF PHYSICAL ACTIVITIES

effects of the second group is to cause lateral curvature of the spine, which lessens its supporting power and in severe cases causes pressure upon the spinal nerves where they pass out from the spinal canal.

2. HANDS ON HIPS. (Hf) (Cut 3)

Command, *Hips,—Firm!*

The hands are placed firmly against the waist, just above the hips, palms on the crest of the hip bone, fingers forward; elbows drawn slightly backward; wrists straight or lower than the line of the hand or arm.

Return command, *Arms,—Down!*

Purpose: (a) To aid in holding the trunk firm; (b) to serve as a convenient position for the hands in exercises in which it is not advantageous to leave them hanging freely.

Faults: (a) Elbows too far forward; (b) wrists too high.

3. HANDS ON NECK. (Nf) (Cut 4)

Command, *Neck,—Firm!*

Start as in flinging arms sideward, then flex elbows and bring finger tips together at the back of the neck, with head erect and elbows well back.

Return command, *Arms,—Down!*

Purpose: (a) To aid in chest expansion; (b) to cultivate good posture; (c) to increase the difficulty of some other exercises.

Faults: (a) Arms brought up toward the front; (b) head moved forward; (c) elbows not held well back.

4. SHOULDERS FIRM. (Sf) (Cuts 5 and 9)

Command, *Shoulders,—Firm!*

The forearms are raised sideward, flexing the elbows, which remain close to the sides as possible; the hands are half closed, raised over the shoulders and carried as far to the rear as possible.

Return command, *Arms,—Down!* or *Arms downward,—Stretch!*

In the latter case the elbows are raised slightly and then thrust downward with force.

Purpose: (a) To aid in chest expansion; (b) to serve as a starting point for arm stretchings; (c) to vary the difficulty of other exercises. This exercise aids in chest expansion only when the elbows are held down and the hands far to the rear at the same time.

Faults: (a) Elbows not held down with enough force; (b) hands not held back with enough force; (c) back hollowed.

5. ARMS FORWARD. (Af) (Cut 6)

Command, *Arms forward,—Raise!*

Arms raised slowly forward to horizontal position, parallel, elbows, and wrists extended, palms toward each other.

Return command, *Arms,—Sink!*

Also taken quickly at the command, *Arms forward,—Fling!* and also at the command, *Arms forward,—Stretch!* The latter command is given while pupils have the arms bent, as in shoulders firm.

Purpose: (a) Cultivation of posture; (b) to vary the difficulty of other exercises.

Faults: (a) Leaning back at the waist; (b) arms too high; (c) shoulders forward.



1. Standing position.



2. Standing position.



3. Hands on hips.



4. Hands at neck and stride sideward.



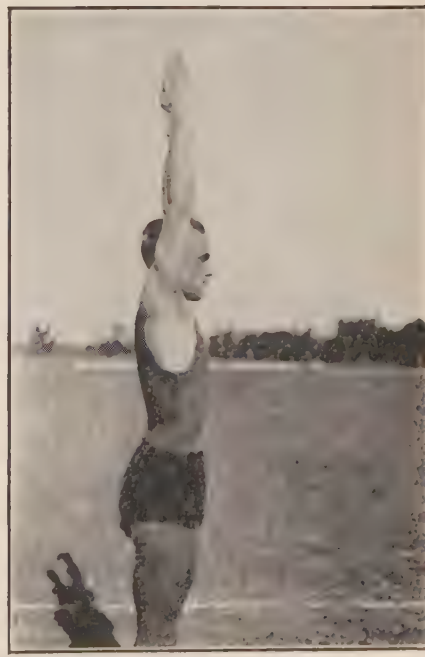
5. Shoulders firm.



6. Arms forward.



7. Arms sideward.



8. Arms upward.

6. ARMS SIDEWARD. (As) (Cut 7)

Command, *Arms sideward,—Raise!*

The arms are raised slowly sideward until they are horizontal, with elbows and wrists extended, palms turned downward, and arms held well back.

Return command, *Arms,—Sink!*

The commands *Fling* and *Stretch* are used in this exercise as in the preceding one, and with the same meaning, the latter command being given when the arms are at "shoulders firm."

Purpose: (a) Cultivation of posture; (b) chest expansion; (c) to vary the difficulty of other exercises. This exercise aids in chest expansion if the arms are held well back, but not otherwise.

Faults: (a) Arms not at the correct height; (b) arms not held well back; (c) class facing in such a way that collisions of arms occur between pupils.

7. ARMS UPWARD. (A u) (Cut 8)

Command, *Arms forward upward,—Raise!*

Beginning as in raising arms forward, the movement is continued up to a vertical position, with arms extended and palms toward each other.

Return command, *Arms forward downward,—Sink!*

The arms may also be raised sideward upward; in this case the palms are turned upward as the arms pass the horizontal position.

Purpose: (a) Cultivation of posture; (b) chest expansion; (c) to vary the difficulty of other exercises.

Faults: (a) Back hollowed; (b) head forward; (c) elbows not extended; (d) palms forward.

The commands *Fling* and *Stretch* are used here as in the preceding.

8. STRIDE SIDEWARD. (std s) (Cut 4)

Command, *Right (or l) foot sideward,—Place!*

The foot is lifted, moved two foot lengths toward the side, and placed on the floor, with the line of the foot at the same angle as before, and the weight equally divided between the two feet.

Return command, *Foot,—Replace!*

This position is sometimes taken, in more advanced work, in two counts, moving the left foot on the first count and the right on the second count, each moving one foot length. The command is *Feet sideward,—Place!* Sometimes with children both feet are moved at the same time at the command, *Feet apart,—Jump!*

Purpose: To increase the stability of the standing position.

Faults: (a) Feet not far enough apart; (b) weight not equally divided; (c) one knee bent; (d) feet not at proper angle.

9. STRIDE FORWARD. (std f) (Cut 9)

Command, *Right (or l) foot forward,—Place!*

The foot is lifted, moved two foot lengths to the front, and placed on the floor with the line of the foot at the same angle as before and the weight equally divided between the two feet.

Return command, *Foot,—Replace!*

The foot may also be placed backward in a similar manner and at a similar command.

Purpose: To vary the standing position and to increase its stability.

Faults: (a) Feet too close together; (b) weight not far enough forward; (c) toes not at proper angle.

10. HEEL RAISING. (H rse) (Cut 10)

Command, *Heels,—Raise!*

Rise high on tiptoes.

Return command, *Heels,—Sink!*

Purpose: (a) To narrow the base of support, so as to give more difficulty in balancing; (b) to serve as a warming up exercise when taken rapidly in series; (c) to test the poise in fundamental standing position.

Faults: (a) Heels turned out; (b) hips thrown forward.

11. KNEE BENDING. (K bd) (Cut 11)

Command, *Knees,—Bend!*

The knees are slowly flexed until there is a right angle at the knee; the knees separate as they bend, moving diagonally forward in the direction of the lines of the feet; the heels are lifted a little during the movement, because of the limited movement possible in the ankle joints.

Return command, *Knees,—Stretch!*

Purpose: To cultivate posture and balance.

Faults: (a) Trunk tipped forward; (b) knees held close together.

12. LEG RAISING. (L rse) (Cut 12)

Command, *Right (left) leg sideward,—Raise!*

The foot is lifted and moved two foot lengths to the side, with knee and ankle extended and the trunk erect. The leg is also raised in a similar way forward, backward, and outward, at similar commands.

Purpose: To cultivate posture and balance.

Faults: (a) Trunk not held erect; (b) ankle not extended.

13. KNEE RAISING. (K rse) (Cut 13)

Command, *Right (left) knee upward,—Raise!*

The knee is raised to the level of the hip, hip and knee joints being flexed to a right angle; trunk erect; ankle of free foot extended.

Return command, *Knee downward,—Stretch!*

Purpose: To cultivate posture and balance.

Faults: (a) Trunk not held erect; (b) knee not as high as hip; (c) free foot not extended or too far back.

14. HEAD BACKWARD. (H b) (Cut 14)

Command, *Head Backward,—Bend!*

The head is held erect and moved backward strongly, and at the same time a deep breath is taken.

Return command, *Head,—Raise!*

Purpose: To correct round shoulders and to raise the chest. "Round shoulders" is a defect of posture that seriously affects the health because it flattens the chest and lessens the range of the breathing movements. Habitual flattening of the chest leaves many air cells without fresh air, a condition favorable to the growth of disease germs.



9. Shoulders firm and stride forward.



10. Hands on hips and heels raised.



11. Hands on hips and knees bent.



12. Right leg raised sideward.



13. Right knee raised.



14. Head bent backward.



15. Hips firm and trunk bent forward.



16. Neck firm and trunk bent downward.

Faults: (a) Raising the chin too high; (b) bending the lower part of the spine, thus sacrificing the fundamental position. This may be avoided by having the beginners take the exercise at first while sitting in the school seat, where the back of the seat prevents the fault; (c) failure to take a deep breath as the head is moved backward.

15. TRUNK FORWARD. (Tr f) (Cut 15)

Taken only from stride position sideward.

Command, *Trunk forward,—Incline!*

The trunk is inclined forward, the movement taking place in the hip joints only, as far as the hips can be flexed; normal curves of spine are maintained, and head, shoulders, and trunk held in the same relative positions as in fundamental position.

Return command, *Trunk upward,—Stretch*, or *Trunk,—Raise!*

Purpose: To cultivate the correct posture of the spine and develop and train the muscles of the back, which are the ones chiefly involved.

Faults: Hips not completely flexed; normal posture of the spine lost.

Starting the movement from stride sideward enables one to bend farther than from fundamental position.

16. TRUNK DOWNWARD. (Tr d) (Cut 16)

Command, *Trunk downward,—Bend!*

Given while the pupils have trunk forward; may also be given while the pupils are in stride sideward with trunk erect. The trunk is bent further downward by relaxing the muscles in the small of the back. The relative positions of the head, shoulders, and chest are kept as in fundamental position.

Return command, *Trunk upward,—Stretch!* or *Trunk,—Raise!*

Purpose: Same as for trunk forward.

Faults: Failure to maintain the normal position of the head and shoulders.

17. TRUNK SIDEWARD. (Tr s) (Cut 17)

Command, *Trunk to right (or l),—Bend!*

The trunk bends directly to the side, as far as possible, with the relative positions of the head and shoulders unchanged.

Return command, *Trunk upward,—Stretch!* or *Trunk,—Raise!*

Purpose: (a) To cultivate flexibility of the spine; (b) to strengthen the muscles used in maintaining the normal position of the spine; (c) to stimulate the internal organs by variations of pressure.

Faults: (a) Trunk twisted; (b) head not in normal position; (c) one knee partly flexed; (d) leaning backward.

18. TRUNK TWIST. (Tr tw) (Cut 18)

Command, *Trunk to right (or l),—Twist!*

Trunk twisting on vertical axis, not twisting the head or hips.

Return command, *Trunk forward,—Twist!*

Purpose: Same as for side bend.

Faults: Twisting legs and hips, and twisting head.

19. FALLOUT FORWARD. (fal f) (Cut 19)

Command, *Right (or l) forward,—Fallout!*

The foot is lifted and placed forward three foot lengths, toes turned

at the same angle as in fundamental position, heels on the floor; forward knee bent until it is vertically over the toe; trunk and rear limb in straight line from head to heel; face and shoulders squarely to the front. The body should remain straight and fall forward as the foot is lifted.

Return command, *Foot,—Replace!*

GYMNASTIC MOVEMENTS

1. FACING TO THE RIGHT. (r fc)

Command, *To the right,—Face!*

The exercise is in two parts: (1) lift the right toe and the left heel and pivot to the right 90 degrees on the right heel by a whirl of the body and the push of the left toe; (2) lift the left foot and place it beside the right, bringing it in from the side with an accent, which is given by a stroke of the ball of the foot on the floor, made by extending the ankle, the knee being kept straight.

2. FACING ABOUT. (ab fc)

Command, *About,—Face!*

This is exactly like the right face except that a turn of 180 degrees is made in the first part.

3. FACING TO THE LEFT. (l fc)

Command, *To the left,—Face!*

Turn to the left, pivoting on the left and pushing with the right toe.

4. NUMBERING. (num)

Command, *Count twos (or fours),—Start!*

This command is given only when the pupils are standing in line side by side. At the command, *count twos*, each pupil turns head slightly to the right, except the guide, who keeps eyes to the front; at the command, *Start!* the guide says, "*One,*" then the pupil at his left turns his head quickly to the front and says, "*Two,*" the next similarly says, "*One,*" and so on until all have numbered. When the class is in two lines, the teacher instructs those in the rear line either to count in unison with the front line or to listen and get the number from the pupil in front as he calls it. The counting should be done in a clear tone, but not necessarily a loud one.

5. MARCHING STEPS. (1 stp f) (2 stp b)

Command, *One (or two or three) step forward (or b),—March!*

The number of steps commanded are taken as in marching, beginning in all cases with the left foot and bringing in the foot beside the other in similar rhythm to complete the movement. It follows that one step will occupy two counts, two steps three counts, etc. The last count is accented as in facings.

6. SIDE STEPS. (1 s stp r)

Command, *One side step to right (or left),—March!*

The movement occupies two counts: the foot is placed to the side as in stride sideward on the first count, and the other foot is brought up beside

it on the second. We may command two side steps, but the second step is only a repetition of the first.

7. MARCHING. (mch)

Command, *Class forward—March; or Forward, quick time,—March!*

At the explanatory command the weight of the body is poised far forward; at the command,—*March!* pupils start promptly forward, beginning with the left foot, keeping even rhythm and all in unison, with trunk erect (not stiff) and arms hanging easily at the sides. For quick time 120 steps to the minute is the usual rate.

At the command, *Class,—Halt!* one more step is taken and the rear foot is placed beside the other on the next count, with an accent as in facing. Because of the momentum of the body and its inclination forward in marching it is almost impossible to stop instantly, which is the reason for the extra step after the command, "*Halt!*" To make the command, "*Class*" of any value as a warning signal it must be spoken on the step immediately preceding the word, *Halt!* instead of leaving a considerable pause between as we need to do in most commands. When it is desired to march slowly the command is *Forward, slow time,—March!*

8. MARCHING TIME. (m t) (Cut 20)

Command, *Mark time,—March!*

This exercise is similar to marching and begins like it with the left foot; the feet are raised directly upward by bending the hip and knee joints, keeping even rhythm and exact unison without advancing. *Class,—Halt!* is commanded and executed as in marching.

Faults: Rocking sidewise alternately as the foot is lifted.

9. RUNNING. (run)

Command, *Running forward,—March!* or *Forward, double time,—March!*

At the command *Forward* the weight is thrown on the right foot and the arms are bent at about a right angle, with the hands half closed and the elbows held slightly back; at the command,—*March!* the left foot is swung forward with the knee slightly bent and the weight thrown upon it by a spring from the right foot; then the right foot executes the same movement and it is continued in even rhythm, with the arms swinging easily at the sides of the chest.

At the command, *Class,—Halt!* three steps are taken to give time to check the momentum of the body, and the foot is brought in on the fourth count. If it is desired to change to marching time without stopping the command, *Quick time,—March!* or *Slow time,—March!*

10. HOPPING EXERCISES. (hop)

Command, *Hopping on left (or r) foot with free foot forward (or s or b),—Start!*

At the explanatory command raise the free foot in the direction given; at the command, *Start!* spring upward from the stationary foot and repeat in even rhythm, alighting each time on the same foot. At the command, *Class,—Halt!* stop the movement and bring the free foot beside the other

148 THE CONDUCT OF PHYSICAL ACTIVITIES

on the next count. The number of hops may be varied by hopping two, four, or a larger number of times on one foot and then changing to the other; the free foot may be swung in rhythm to the hopping; appropriate commands must be given.

11. SKIPPING. (skip)

Command, *Skipping forward,—Start!*

Skipping consists in moving rapidly forward by hopping twice on one foot and twice on the other in succession, taking a full step in distance each time. Start with the left foot and stop as in running.

12. MARCHING TO THE REAR. (mch rr)

Command, *To the rear,—March!*

This is usually given while the pupils are marching, but may be given first from standing position to acquire the coördination.

At the command, *March!* which is given just as the right foot strikes the floor, (1) take one step with the left foot, placing it directly in front of the right foot; (2) lift the heels, with both feet on the floor, and turn 180 degrees toward the right on the balls of the feet; (3) step forward with the left foot and continue marching in the opposite direction.

This is the first example of a command that must be spoken at a given time, and so requires special attention and practice by the teacher. The command, *To the rear*, should be spoken rapidly just as the left foot strikes the floor, the three words all in the time of the one step; the word, *March* is then spoken in unison with the stroke of the foot (right). Advanced classes may be taught to take the movement at a command with a long pause, but beginners do best as stated above.

To teach the exercise it should be developed in the manner previously used for complex exercises, starting from the standing position.

Marching to right (mch r) and to left (mch l) are commanded in a similar manner. The execution differs in the following points: In marching to the right the foot is placed outward instead of in front of the other on the first count, and the turn is 90 degrees; marching to the left is commanded in the same way but two steps are taken, bringing the right foot forward; then the turn can be made to the left.

ELEMENTARY MOVEMENTS WITH DUMB-BELLS

Fundamental position is usually taken with the arms at the sides; if pupils are inclined to make too much noise with the bells they may be directed to rest with bells on the hips.

I. POSITIONS OF BELLS.

(a) Command, *Bells on hips,—Place!* (Cut 21)

The bells are lifted and the knuckles placed against the waist just at the crest of the hip bone, with thumbs to the front.

Return command, *Bells,—Down!*

(b) Command, *Bells on shoulders,—Place!* (Cut 22)

Arms are raised sideward and bells placed horizontally on the shoulders with thumbs to the rear.

Return command, *Bells,—Down!*



17. Hips firm and trunk bent sideward.



18. Neck firm and stride sideward, trunk twist to left.



19. Hips firm and fallout right forward.



20. Marking time.



21. Stride sideward with bells on hips.



22. Bells on shoulders.



23. Bells on chest.



24. Striking bells in front of thighs

(c) Command, *Bells on chest,—Place!* (Cut 23)

Bells are raised by bending arms and placing them high up on chest in the form of the letter V, lower end of bells close together, but not touching, elbows, close to side.

Return command, *Bells,—Down!*

2. SWINGS OF BELLS.

These are movements of bells with elbows extended.

(a) Command, *Bells sideward,—Swing!* Arms are raised sideward until they are horizontal, palms down.

Return command, *Bells downward,—Swing!*

Swings are also made in a similar manner forward and forward-upward from fundamental position, forward and upward from sideward, sideward and upward from forward, and sideward and forward from overhead. When the bells are swung forward or upward the palms are usually turned toward each other. The command *Swing* is used whenever the straight arm is swung from the shoulder, except in strokes.

3. STROKES.

Strike bells forward.—One! The bells are swung sideward and then forward in a curve and the thumb ends are struck strongly together with the arms straight and horizontal forward. At the command *Two*, the bells are swung back to the starting point. Strokes are also made in a similar way overhead, in front of thighs (Cut 24), behind hips, etc. A starting point should be chosen that will permit a good full swing of the bells.

Anvil strokes are strokes in which one bell is held still to represent an anvil while the other strikes it a swinging blow to imitate a hammer. *Anvil stroke on left shoulder,—Strike!* (Cut 25) or *One!* The left bell is placed on the left shoulder and the right bell strikes a strong blow against the front end of it. At the command *Two*, the bells return. Anvil strokes are made at either hip or either shoulder, on either knee with a fallout, at full arms' length, and in other places.

4. THRUSTS.

These are extensions of the arms, starting from some position in which the arm is bent, usually from bells on chest or shoulders. *Right bell sideward,—Thrust!* (Cut 26) The arm is extended sideward horizontal and as it extends the thumb is placed against the ball of the bell and the wrist is bent so as to bring the bell in line with the arm; the arm is rotated so as to turn the back to the front. *Bell,—Replace!* The command may also be given,—*Thrust right bell sideward,—One! Two!*

Thrusts are made also forward, upward, and downward, either with hands singly, in alternation, or both at once. In the forward, upward, and downward thrusts the arm is rotated as above described in the sideward thrust, the backs of the hands being turned toward each other in the three cases.

The twist of the arm is used to prevent the jerk that occurs at the end of the thrust. Thrusts are sometimes given without it, the thrust terminating in the same position of the bells as the corresponding swing.

ELEMENTARY WAND MOVEMENTS

Fundamental position is usually taken with the wand held in both hands and resting against the front of the thighs, backs of the hands to the front. (Cut 28) For marching the wand is usually carried in the manner described in military regulations for carrying arms. A few movements with wands require it to be held with palms forward.

1. SWINGS OF WAND.

(a) *Wand forward,—Swing!* Arms straight and horizontal. *Wand downward,—Swing!* (Cut 29)

(b) *Wand forward upward,—Swing!* Arms straight and vertical. *Wand downward,—Swing!*

(c) *Wand to right horizontal,—Swing!* Arms at same height. *Downward,—Swing!* Same to left. (Cut 30)

(d) *Wand to right vertical,—Swing!* Right arm straight up, left arm exactly as in (c). Same to left. (Cut 31)

(e) *Aim forward right, Aim!* Wand along right arm, left arm as in (c) and (d). Same to left. (Cut 32)

Swings are also taken to various diagonal positions.

2. POSITIONS OF WAND INVOLVING MOVEMENTS OTHER THAN SWINGS.

(a) *Wand on chest,—Place! Wand,—Down* (Cut 33)

(b) While wand is on chest we may command, *Wand forward,—Thrust!* or *Wand upward,—Thrust!* or *Wand downward,—Thrust!*

(c) While wand is overhead we may command, *Wand on shoulders,—Place!* Then we may command, *Wand upward,—Thrust!* The wand may also be placed on shoulders from almost any other position.

(d) While wand is forward we may command, *Cross right arm over left,—One! Two!* Elbows are bent to a right angle. (Cut 35) The movement may be reversed, and may also be taken from fundamental position or almost any other position.

PROGRAMS FOR A CLASS PERIOD

A Series of Six Programs Suitable for Boys of Grammar Grade Who Have Had Some Training, Working in the Aisles Between the Desks and Seats

I

1. Std s, ch f.
2. Hf, *H rse.*
3. Hf std f, H bd b.
4. A rse fu. A fl fu.
5. Hf std s, H rse.
6. A f std s, Tr inc f.
7. Sit, F sup, Tr inc b.
8. A f std s, Tr bd s.
9. Jp u fl a fu.
10. Mch.
11. Br.

2

1. I stp s. Al f.
2. Hf std s, *H rse.*
3. A s std f, H bd b.
4. S f, A str s.
5. Nf std s, H rse
6. S f std s, Tr inc f.
7. Sit, F sup, Tr inc b.
8. S f std s, Tr bd s.
9. Jp u fl A fu.
10. Mch.
11. Br.

3

1. R fc.
2. Hf std f, *H rse.*
3. A f std f, H bd b.
4. S f, *A str s.*
5. S f std s, H rse.
6. Nf std s, Tr inc d.
7. Sit, F sup, Tr inc b.
8. Nf std s. Tr bds.
9. Jp u turn 90°.
10. Mch.
11. Br.

4

5

6

1. R fc.
2. Nf std s, *H rse.*
3. S f std f, H bd b.
4. S f, *A str s std s.*
5. Hf std f, H rse.
6. Std s, Tr incl f, Hf, Nf, A bd.
7. Ln, H desks.
8. Hf, Tr bd s. A s, etc.
9. Jp u turn 90°.
10. Mch.
11. Br.

1. Ab fc.
2. S f std s, *H rse.*
3. Hf, H bd b.
4. S f, *A str f.*
5. Nf std f, H rse.
6. Hf std s, Tr bd d.
7. Ln, H desks, A bd.
8. A f, Tr bd s. Jp u turn 180°.
- 9.
10. Mch.
11. Br.

1. Ab fc.
2. S f std f, *H rse.*
3. A s, H bd b.
4. S f, *A str f std f.*
5. S f std f, H rse.
6. A f std s, Tr bd d.
7. Ln, H seats, A bd.
8. Nf, Tr bd s.
9. Jp u turn 180°.
10. Mch.
11. Br.

A Series of Six Programs Suitable for High School Boys Who Have Had Gymnastic Training and Who Work in a Gymnasium

1

2

3

1. Pos. Hf. std s.
2. M t. Mch.
3. Hf std f, H bd b.
4. A fl s. A fl f.
5. H rse, A f, A s.
6. Hf std s, Tr incl f.
7. Hf std f, incl b.
8. Std s Tr bd s.
9. Run.
10. Mch.
11. Br.

1. Std f, ch F. step f.
2. *H rse.* Std s, *H rse.*
3. A f std f, H bd b.
4. Nf. Sf.
5. H rse, Hf, Nf.
6. A f std s, Tr incl f.
7. A f std f, incl b.
8. A f std s, Tr bd s.
9. Run
10. Mch.
11. Br.

1. 2 or 3 steps.
2. Nf std s, *H rse.*
3. Sf std f, H b.
4. A rse u. A fl u.
5. Hf L rse (f, s, b)
6. Std s, Tr f, Hf, Nf
7. Ln (hands on floor).
8. Nf std s, Tr bd s.
9. Run. Jp u.
10. Mch.
11. Br.

4

5

6

1. Std s, ch F. 1 s stp.
2. Hf std f, *h rse.*
3. Hf std s, H b bd.
4. S f, *A str s std s.*
5. L rse b.
6. Hf fal f. A f fal f.
7. Ln. (hds on fl).
8. Nf, Tr bd s.
9. Run. Jp u fl A fu.
10. Mch.
11. Br.

1. Al f. R fc.
2. Nf std f, *H rse.*
3. A F std s, Ch arch.
4. Sf, *A str f std f.*
5. L rse, Hf, Nf, etc.
6. A s fal f. Nf fal f.
7. Ln. (hds on fl).
8. Nf std f, Tr bd s.
9. Jp u turn 90°.
10. Mch.
11. Br.

1. Ab fc. L fc.
2. Sf std f, *H rse.*
3. Sf std s, Ch arch.
4. Sf, *A str d std f.*
5. Nf L rse, F sw.
6. Fal f, Hf, Nf.
7. Hg, K rse.
8. A f std f, Tr tw.
9. Jp u turn 180°.
10. Mch.
11. Br.

THE GERMAN TYPE OF PROGRAM

Program With Dumb-Bells, Suitable for Grammar Grade Boys
Theme: Strides, Turns and Striking

- Exercise 1. (1) Std f r sw bells s—(2) H rse and strike bells u—(3) return to position of (1)—(4) pos.
- Exercise 2. (1) Std f r sw bells s—(2) turn 90 degrees l on balls of feet and strike bells f—(3) return to position of (1)—(4) pos.
- Exercise 3. (1) Strike bells f std f r—(2) turn 180 degrees l on balls of feet and strike bells behind hips—(3) return to position of (1)—(4) pos.

156 THE CONDUCT OF PHYSICAL ACTIVITIES

- Exercise 4. (1) Sw bells s std s r—(2) K bd strike bells f—(3) return to position of (1)—(4) pos.
- Exercise 5. (1) Sw bells s std s r—(2) turn 90 degrees l, sway to fal f and strike bells under l knee—(3) return to position of (1)—4 pos.
- Exercise 6. (1) Strike bells u std s r—(2) turn to l 90 degrees and bend f striking bells on floor by l toes—(3) return to position of (1)—(4) pos.
- Each exercise should be practiced the same number of times on each side; when used as a drill, take on alternate sides to 32 counts.

PROGRAM SUITABLE FOR HIGH SCHOOL BOYS

- Exercise 1. (1) Bells on sh std s r—(2) thr bells u and lunge s r—(3) swing bells f and lunge s l—(4) pos.
- Exercise 2. (1) Bells on chest std f r—(2) thr B u and lunge f r—(3) strike B on floor in front of r ft—(4) pos.
- Exercise 3. (1) Bells on shldr s std s r—(2) thr bells u bd Tr d sw bells between knees—(3) rse Tr and sw bells u and look at them—(4) pos.
- Exercise 4. (1) Bells on sh std s r—(2) thr bells f lunge s r—(3) sw bells s bd Tr r—(4) pos.
- Exercise 5. (1) Raise bells s bd r Knee upward—(2) touch stp r b and strike bells under l knee—(3) bd r Kn upward and strike bells overhead—(4) pos.
- Exercise 6. (1) Knees deep bd, pl B on floor close to ft—(2) jump both ft backward, so the body is straight—(3) turning the body so all weight is on l hand and r bell straight upward—(4) replace B on floor—(5) raise l bell straight upwd—(6) replace B on floor—(7) jump ft back to pos. (1)—(8) pos.
- Exercise 7. (1) Sw bells s touch step s r—(2) place r bell on l hip, arm behind waist, and across touch step backward r—(3) reverse of (2), coming back to position of (1)—(4) position.
- Exercise 8. (1) Bells on shoulders r K rse—(2) thrust bells f and str r K f, foot 6 inches from floor—(3) reverse (2), coming back to position of (1)—(4) position.
- When used as a drill, take each exercise on alternate sides for 16 or 32 counts.

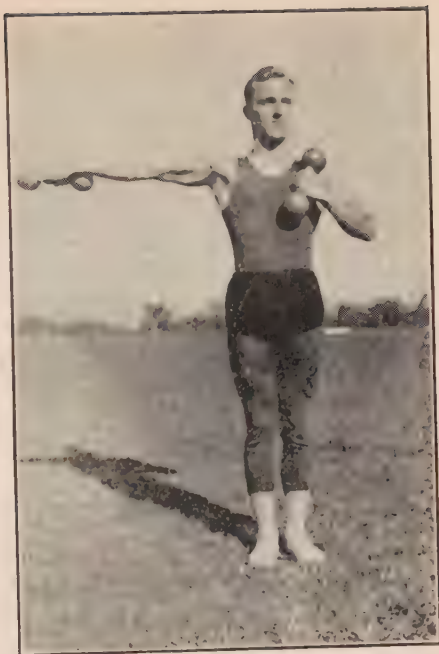
PROGRAM WITH WANDS, SUITABLE FOR SIXTH GRADE BOYS

Theme: Strides, Fallouts, and Wand Swings

- Exercise 1. (1) Sw wand f and std s r—(2) sw wand u and sway to fal s r—(3) reverse (2), coming back to position of (1)—(4) position.
- Exercise 2. (1) Sw wand f std s r—(2) bd Tr f sw wand f d between knees with r end of wand to rear and l end to front—(3) reverse (2), coming back to position of (1)—(4) position.
- Exercise 3. (1) Sw wand f std s r—(2) turn to r 90 degrees on balls of both feet, sway to fal f r and aim f r—(3) reverse (2), coming back to (1)—(4) position.



25. Anvil stroke on left shoulder.



26. Left bell on chest, right bell thrust sideward.



27. Bells to right sideward, right touch step sideward.



28. Wand in starting position.



29. Wand horizontal forward, right touch step forward.



30. Wand to right horizontal, right leg raised sideward.



31. Wand to right vertical.



32. Aim forward right, kneel on left knee.

Exercise 4. (1) Sw wand u std f r—(2) turn 9 degrees to left on toes and cross r arm over l—(3) reverse (2), coming back to position of (1)—(4) position.

Exercise 5. (1) Sw wand u and std f r—(2) sw wand to right horizontal and sway to r fal f—(3) reverse (2), coming back to (1)—(4) position.

Exercise 6. (1) Sw wand u std f r—(2) sw wand d r and then up to l hor turning to l 90 degrees and sway to fal s r—(3) return to pos of (1)—(4) pos.

These exercises should be practiced the same number of times on each side, and when taken as a drill, alternately right and left for 16 to 32 counts. The appearance of the class is made more effective by grouping. With the class in four lines, facing toward one end of the lines, have the exercises taken alternately r and l but instead of all starting to r or l have them start toward the center; then the second four counts will be taken away from the center.

When the above program has been learned it may be well for variety, especially if used as a drill, to change the order of the exercises to 1, 4, 2, 5, 3, 6.

PROGRAM WITH WANDS, SUITABLE FOR EIGHTH GRADE BOYS

Theme: Strides, Lunges, and Wand Swings

Exercise 1. (1) Sw wand u std b r—(2) aim r f std f r—(3) aim l f std b r—(4) pos.

Exercise 2. (1) Wand on sh std s r—(2) rse r F lunge s r wand moved to l behind l sh r hand back of head l hand at side—(3) shift wand to r to similar position sway to lunge s l—(4) pos.

Exercise 3. (1) Sw wand u std b r—(2) wand r hor std f r—(3) sw wand d and then u to l hor std b r—(4) pos.

Exercise 4. (1) Wand on sh std s r—(2) wand l vertical lunge s r—(3) sw wand d l and u to r vertical lunge s l—(4) pos.

Exercise 5. (1) Sw wand u std b r—(2) lunge f r sw wand d to floor at r toe—(3) wand on chest std b r—(4) pos.

Exercise 6. (1) Wand on sh std s r—(2) turn 90 degrees l lunge s r sw wand diagonally f u—(3) lunge s l sw wand d and u until it aims diagonally u r—(4) pos.

When used as a drill, arrange class in open order and have the ones face one end of the room and the twos the other; then have the exercises taken alternately r and l, all beginning to r.

A PROGRAM OF THE NEW YORK CITY TYPE, PLANNED FOR A SEVENTH GRADE

INTRODUCTORY EXERCISES: (Response Commands. For mental and physical preparation for the lesson.)

Class:—Attention!

Taking distance:—One! Two! (Full arm length). Get good standing posture. Use Elevation Cues.

162 THE CONDUCT OF PHYSICAL ACTIVITIES

Marching and Facing.

Taking apparatus and marching to floor formation, Forward:—March!

Placing apparatus on floor:—One! Two!

Breathing:—In! Out! 4 to 8 times. (Facing windows.)

CORRECTIVE EXERCISES: (Elevation Cues. To develop good posture.)

Hands on shoulders:—Place! Use Elevation Cues. The elbows are raised high; the hands are above the shoulders; the chest and head are raised; the body straightened upward. In this position the teacher should use Elevation Cues and call for raising elbows and wrists.

This exercise has one elevated position, which is held from 3 to 7 seconds, while the teacher urges and the pupils work for elevation.

Position! 4 or more times.

To get good posture, it is necessary for the pupils to know from experience the exact position desired in response to Elevation Cues. These are always to be used while the static contraction is held, for the purpose of lifting and straightening the body. They should be given with meaning, vigor, and discrimination. The following are the best:

Head:—Up!

Lift the head!

Chest:—Up!

Lift the chest!

Waist:—Flat!

Stretch the knees!

Weight:—Forward!

Stretch the ankles!

(If necessary)

Stand tall!

The teacher should note with great care the posture of each pupil and determine what improvement is necessary.

Each pupil should be informed of his defects and shown how to correct them. This requires constant practice and much individual attention.

Every formal exercise should start and finish in the correct standing position.

Good posture without rigidity should be constantly maintained.

EDUCATIONAL EXERCISES: (Response Commands. For alertness, inhibition and accuracy.)

Taking apparatus:—One! Two!

1. (1) Point step forward left, raising arms sideways, bells height of eyes (palms up):—One! (Use Elevation Cues.)

(2) Starting position:—Two!

4 times. Same right. Alternate.

Name—Point Step Forward, Raising Arms Sideways.

2. (1) Springing feet sideways, bells at sides of shoulders (elbows down):—One!

(2) Bending trunk to the left, bending left knee, the left bell back of left knee, right arm upward:—Two!

(3) Trunk erect, bells at sides of shoulder:—Three!

(4) Position:—Four!

4 times. Same, bending trunk to the right. Alternate.

Name—Springing Feet Sideways, Bells at Sides of Shoulders; Bending Trunk Left, Left Bell Back of Knee, Right Arm Upward.

HYGIENIC EXERCISES: (Rhythmic Commands. To develop physical endurance.)

Bells on shoulders:—Place!

1. Bells to Toes; Trunk Erect, Bells on Shoulders; Bells Sideways:—Begin!

6 or 8 times. Position! (See Lesson 1 for description.)

2. For boys—

Springing Feet Backward:—Begin!

4 times. (See Lesson 2 for description.)

For girls—

Springing Feet Sideways, Bells at Sides of Shoulders; Stretching Arms Upward:—Begin!

4 times. (See Lesson 2 for description.)

3. Running. Review. (In addition practice Counter-Running to the left (Right):—Run!

4. Breathing:—In! Out! 4 to 8 times. (Facing windows.)

RECREATIVE EXERCISES:

Crouching Start. (For Boys.) To be practiced.

Standing Start. (For Girls.) To be practiced.

(See Lesson 2 for descriptions.)

Dance—Trallen or Gathering Peascods. At least twice a week.

Game—All Up Relay. At least once a week.

Athletic Period and Class Athletics. At least once a week.

Coats and sweaters should be left in the classroom or removed in the gymnasium.

Tell the pupils to practice these exercises at home for at least five minutes, night and morning.

TEACHING EXERCISES WITH INDIAN CLUBS

For practicing new exercises, which is the main thing in class work, the clubs for the strongest high school pupils should not exceed one and one-half pounds; most men prefer one pound clubs for new exercises and one and one-half for familiar exercises. For classes of women and children clubs of one-fourth, one-half, and three-fourths of a pound should be provided. The clubs should not be too short. One chief fault with many patterns of lighter clubs is so short a handle that the natural time of the swing is too quick to be controlled well.

ELEMENTARY CLUB MOVEMENTS

While resting, pupils hold the clubs easily at sides; the clubs should be brought to position and fundamental position of the body assumed at the same time. (Cut 36)

Command, *With clubs in position,—Stand! or Clubs,—Up!*

PARALLEL PLAIN SWINGS.

The clubs start from position to the right at the same time, the right club executing the sidewise swing and the left club the cross swing.

Faults: One club swings slightly before the other; body bent to the side.

OPPOSITE SWINGS.

Command, *Both sidewise (or crosswise),—Swing!*

Both start at once on the sidewise swing, clubs crossing in front of knees.

Reverse the movement for the crosswise swing.

Faults: Body bent forward with each swing; not poised forward far enough; swings not in lateral plane.

A SERIES OF PLAIN SWINGS

Plain swings, eight counts of each, beginning parallel right,—Swing!
The series is as follows:

1. Parallel right.
2. Both sidewise.
3. Both crosswise.
4. Parallel left.

Club movements are not so readily combined with all kinds of other movements as are those with bells, wands and hoops, but a few combinations are good and serve to distribute the exercise. The plain swings can be combined with step positions, stride positions, side steps, fallout, and some others. The following will illustrate the use of combinations with the series just given:

1. Parallel right with touch step sideward right. Take the touch step with the plain swing and return the foot while the club rests on the second count. Continue for the eight counts.
2. Both sidewise and side step. Take the stride position sideward with the plain swing and bring in the other foot on the second count. Take the step first to right and then to left, alternately for the eight counts.
3. Both crosswise and heel raising. Stand on tiptoes during the swing and in fundamental position on the second count. Continue through the eight counts.
4. Parallel left and step position sideward left. Practice this series till perfectly familiar.

THE CIRCLES BEHIND THE SHOULDERS

These circles are not so easily made alone, but are readily added to the plain swings. They are taken up singly as follows:

(a) SIDEWISE.

Command, *Plain swing with shoulder circle, right sidewise,—Swing!*

(Cut 37)

Execute the first count of the plain sidewise swing, then, instead of coming to rest on the second count, carry the hand backward and, without pausing or stopping the momentum of the club, make a small circle behind the shoulder. In making the small circle the hand is at the height of the eye and directly above the tip of the shoulder; the club is held between the thumb and first finger, with the ball of the club in the hand.

Faults: Hand held too low while making small circle; club grasped too tightly; plain swing too small, especially at later part.

Practice same exercises with the left hand.

(b) CROSSWISE.

Command, *Plain swing with shoulder circle, right crosswise,—Swing!*

Preceding exercise is exactly reversed. Swing the plain swing crosswise on the first count and then, instead of coming to rest, make a small circle crosswise and down behind the head and shoulder, without pausing or checking the momentum of the club.

Faults: The hand held too high while making small circles; plain swing too small; club grasped too tightly.

Practice same exercise with the left hand.

(c) PARALLEL TO RIGHT.

Command, *Parallel to right with shoulder circles,—Swing!*

The right swings sidewise, the left club crosswise; shoulder circles parallel on the second count. (Cut 38)

Faults: Shoulder circles not made at same height; sidewise circle is apt to be too low and the other too high.

(d) FOLLOW.

This is a variation from the parallel, differing from it only in having the club that swings crosswise start and keep a half circle in advance of the other. *Follow to right,—Swing!*

Faults: Club that leads is not far enough in advance; not keeping with the music.

(e) BOTH SIDEWISE.

Command, *Both sidewise with shoulder circles,—Swing!*

Faults: Shoulder circles made with hands too low; plain swings made without fully extending the arms.

(f) ALTERNATE SIDEWISE.

This is a variation of both sidewise, differing from it only in having one club make the plain swing while the other makes the shoulder circle, and vice versa. *Alternate sidewise with shoulder circles,—Swing!* The right club begins with the plain swing, the left with the shoulder circle; the following diagrams show the difference in rhythm between the follow and the alternate swings:

		Count one	Count two
Follow right:	{ Right hand	plain swing	shoulder circle
	{ Left hand	plain swing	shoulder circle
Alternate:	Right hand	plain swing	shoulder circle
	Left hand	shoulder circle	plain swing

After a little practice with:

(g) Both Crosswise with shoulder circles we are ready for:

(h) ALTERNATE CROSSWISE. Here the rule for starting is the same as for alternate sidewise, and as shown in the above chart.

The parallel to left and the follow to left are too nearly like these movements to right to need description. When they are learned we can swing the following series:

SERIES OF SWINGS WITH SHOULDER CIRCLES

- | | |
|-----------------------|------------------------|
| 1. Parallel to right | 5. Alternate crosswise |
| 2. Follow to right | 6. Both crosswise |
| 3. Both sidewise | 7. Follow to left |
| 4. Alternate sidewise | 8. Parallel to left |

Each of these movements should be taken for 8 or 16 counts and then a change should be made to the next without any interruption of the rhythm. The change from 1 to 2 has no difficulty. To change from 2 to 3 the left hand must reverse after the shoulder circle of the last count. From 3 to 4 the right hand makes no change but the left hand makes a second shoulder circle at the beginning of the new movement. To change from 4 to 5, stop the clubs at the end of the last movement of 4, raise them a little above the head, then drop them crosswise on the new movement.

Pupils should notice the relation of this series to the series of plain swings on page 146: 1 corresponds to 1, and a variation of it is added as 2; 3 corresponds to 2, and a variation of it is added as 4; 6 is like 3, and a variation of it is inserted at 5; 8 is like 4, with the corresponding variation as 7. The last four are arranged in the reverse order of the first four. This arrangement makes easy changes from one movement to the next.

When the above series is mastered, the following combinations may be given:

1. Parallel to right and touch step s r with bending of l knee. The touch step is taken with the plain swings and the return with the shoulder circles, 16 counts.

2. Follow to right and fal s r, taken as follows: std s r and plain swings on count 1—sway to fal s r and shoulder circles on count 2—sway back to std and plain swings on count 3—replace the foot and shoulder circles on count 4. 16 counts.

3. Both sidewise and side step to right for the first two counts, repeat the club movement and step in opposite direction on the next two counts. Continue for 16 counts.

4. Alternate sidewise for 8 counts without other movement, followed by 8 counts of the following: (1) let the clubs drop backward until they rest on the shoulders by loosening the grasp, hands as in position of clubs, and rse r knee—(2) hold this position—(3) extend knee forward, foot 6 inches from floor—(4) hold this position—(5) return to position of (1)—(6) hold this position—(7) return to standing position—(8) rest.

5. Alternate crosswise, without combination, for 8 counts, followed by 8 counts as in the preceding but taken on other foot.

6. Both crosswise and side step as in 3, taking the step to left instead of to right.

7. Follow to left and fal s l, taken as in 2.

8. Parallel to left and step pos s l, taken as in 1.

ADVANCED CLUB MOVEMENTS

(a) THE MILL WHEEL. (Cut 39)

Command, *Mill wheel to right,—Swing!*

To learn this movement easily a preliminary exercise is necessary; this consists of the parts of the mill wheel made by the hand separately.



33. Wand on chest.



34. Stride sideward, wand on shoulders, bend trunk to right.



35. Cross left arm over right and fall-out right sideward.



36. Clubs in position.



37. Small circle behind right shoulder.



38. Parallel swings behind shoulders.



39. Mill wheel, right club going forward and left club backward.



40. Small circle behind right hip.

Preliminary exercise: Hold the left forearm and club horizontal forward, elbow resting against side and elbow bent to a right angle. Starting with the right club in position, make three circles in the forward plane as follows: first, a circle forward with the right palm being down at first and up at the end; second, make a circle just like the first excepting that right wrist crosses under the left arm instead of above it; third, leaving the palm up, when it finishes the second circle, make a circle on the right side of the right arm in the forward plane, hand nearly still. Now begin at the first and repeat in series, practicing the three in order without stopping.

Faults: The circles not made in the forward plane; under circles not complete at their upper half.

Practice same with left hand.

The mill wheel is a "follow" combination of these exercises, arranged as shown in the following diagram; the three circles just described are called the over, under, and side circles respectively.

		<i>Count one</i>	<i>Count two</i>
Mill Wheel	Right hand:	over under	side
	Left hand:	under side	over under

The mill wheel to right begins, as the diagram indicates, with the under circle with the left hand. As the left club reaches its lowest point in this circle, the right club starts over. The over circles come at the beginning of each count of the music, and so serve as the guide for rhythm. The circles made by each hand come in the order in which they were taken singly.

The mill wheel to left differs from the mill wheel to right only in the stage of the movement at which we begin it; the exercise to right begins with left hand under, and that to left with right hand under. The reason for this is that the mill wheel is regularly taken after a follow, and the hand that is leading in the follow must lead in the mill wheel.

When the mill wheel is mastered, repeat the series of swings with shoulder circles and insert the mill wheel after the follow. The smoothest change is made by repeating the follow again after the mill wheel.

ADVANCED CLUB SWINGING; COFFEE GRIND, REELS, FRONT CIRCLES, LOWER CIRCLES

(b) The Coffee Grind is a follow movement somewhat similar to the mill wheel, but the circles are horizontal. The movement is learned first with the hands singly, swinging the club horizontally above and below the hand in alternation; both clubs swing in the same direction in follow time to make the coffee grind.

(c) The Circle in Front of Shoulder. This circle is made at the same height as the shoulder circle with the club passing in front of arm and shoulder. A new way of holding the club is required here; the ball of the club must be held between the ends of the thumb and two or three fingers, instead of in the notch between thumb and first finger as usual. This

circle is made with the plain swing, in the same manner as the shoulder circle. A series can be swung using the front shoulder circle instead of the one used hitherto, with parallels, follows, opposites, and alternates.

(d) The Reel. This is made by taking the shoulder circle and the circle in front of shoulder in alternation, without any plain swing. The reel may be made sidewise or crosswise, in the same direction as the corresponding plain swings.

Reels can be made parallel, opposite, or alternate; the alternate is the most pleasing of these, and is often introduced into the series of swings with shoulder circles after the alternate sidewise and before the alternate crosswise. The alternate reel may be thought of as a variation of the regular alternate, substituting the small circle in front of shoulder in place of the plain swing.

(e) The Lower Circles. Each exercise thus far has been complete in two counts; the lower circles are usually added to the swings with shoulder circles, making four counts in all.

Right club sidewise with lower circles,—Swing! The order of the circles is as follows:

(1) The downward half of the plain swing—(2) lower back circle—(Cut 40) (3) lower front circle—(4) upward half of plain swing and shoulder circle. The greatest difficulty here is the lower back circle.

The lower back circle is made with the club held between the tips of fingers and thumb, as for the circle in front of shoulder. As the club swings downward it is carried to the rear and behind the back, with the palm of the hand to the rear. Swinging the hand in nearly to the middle of the back, the hand is raised three or four inches by a bend of the elbow to give the club its turn upward, and then brought quickly around the waist line to the front and the lower front circle made. The lower front circle is made with the hand nearly stationary in front of the thigh, with the palm to the front and inward, the club being held between thumb and first finger as in shoulder circles. The lower front circle being completed, swing the club far to the left to make the upward half of the plain swing, and complete the exercise with the shoulder circle.

Faults: Lower circle not far enough behind the back; plain swing too small: swings not in lateral plane. Repeat with left hand.

Right club crosswise with lower circles,—Swing!

This is the exact reverse of the preceding. The order of the different movements is:

(1) The downward half of the crosswise plain swing—(2) lower front circle in reverse direction—(3) lower back circle in the reverse direction—(4) upward half of plain swing and the crosswise shoulder circle.

The only point of difficulty here is, as before, with the lower back circle. With the aid of the momentum gained in the making of the lower front circle, the club rises as it passes to the rear, so that when the hand is behind the hip the club points nearly upward. The palm must be turned to the rear. The club passes inward behind the back and then downward; the second half of the plain swing must be in the side plane, and the shoulder circle at the proper height.

The exercises with lower back circles require somewhat faster music than these previously learned.

SERIES OF SWINGS WITH LOWER CIRCLES

- | | |
|--------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| 1. Parallel to left | 5. Lower reel, crosswise |
| 2. Follow to left | 5b. Alternate crosswise |
| 2b. Mill Wheel or Coffee grind | 6. Both crosswise |
| 2. Follow to left | 7. Follow to right |
| 3. Both sidewise | 7b. Mill Wheel or Coffee grind |
| 4. Alternate sidewise | 7. Follow to right |
| 4b. Lower reel, sidewise | 8. Parallel to right |

This series is given starting toward the left so that it can be taken immediately after the series with shoulder circles, which was given starting toward the right. The following are the difficult points:

The follow is not made easily with the lower circles and in exact rhythm; the following hand is apt to catch up, so that the last count of the exercise is a parallel. Care must be taken to make all circles full size with the hand that follows, as a shortening of these circles, especially the plain swing, is the cause of one hand's gaining on the other.

The mill wheel in this series is taken with a fallout outward, the hands touching the knee and the clubs swinging each side of the leg.

The alternate swings have the circles related to one another as follows:

	1	2	3	4
Alternate Sidewise—				
Right hand:	down	back	front	up and shoulder
Left hand:	up	shoulder	back	front
Alternate Crosswise—				
Right hand:	down	front	back	up and shoulder
Left hand:	back	shoulder	down	front

This relation of the swings is brought about if we start the left hand in each case on count three and the right hand on count one of the regular opposite swing.

The lower reels consist of lower back and lower front circles in alternation; the lower reel sidewise starts with the right hand back and the left hand front; the crosswise reel starts in the opposite position, so as to start smoothly by stopping the former and reversing the movement.

THE END

[illegible]

Demco 293-5

Ripon College Library
GV361 .B6 gen
Bowen, Wilbur Pardo/The conduct of physi



3 5234 00078 2056

GV 361 .B6
Bowen, Wilbur Pardo, 1864-
1928.
The conduct of physical
activities in elementary

DEMCO

